The Nation.

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The Week.

It would be interesting to know what the real feelings of the "high priest of protection" are when he proclaims free trade with Porto Rico to-day. We all remember how ready Mr. McKinley was to recommend unrestrained intercourse with that island to Congress as "our plain duty," and with what characteristic grace and true devotion to principle he found it proper to advise a tariff within a few weeks thereafter. It may possibly occur to him at present that what it is right to do now it was right to do two years ago, if only for the reason that the Porto Ricans would have been so much better off during the intervening period. Difficult as it must always be for him to pronounce those hateful words, free trade, it is well that he accustom his lips to them. He may yet have to use them frequently, coupled with such adjectives as moderate and partial. It may even occur to him that, if there is advantage to be gained, as there is beyond dispute, in taking Porto Rico into the customs limits of the United States, we might find our account in free trade elsewhere. Moreover, if he achieves his wish of adding the island of Cuba to the United States as a Territory before the expiration of his present term, he will have dealt a knock-down blow to the system which he has championed so long. Meanwhile Porto Rico is to be congratulated upon this improvement in its status and prospects.

There seems to be some little difference of opinion as to how many Cuban forts this Government is going to occupy after the establishment of that free and independent republic for which it has worked so hard. That whole-souled advocate of Cuban independence, the *Tribune*, announces that the American flag will fly over the forts at Havana, Cienfuegos, Santiago, and Matanzas even after the republic is established. It kindly explains, in true Machiavellian style, that this is not explicitly called for by the Platt law, and that very little was said before about this plan "because it was feared that it would give additional excuse for delay at Havana of compliance on the part of the Constitutional Convention with the Platt law." Now that the Cubans have accepted that document, it is, of course, the proper time to let everything that was hidden behind it come to the light. Fortunately, other Washington dispatches declare that things have not yet gone quite so far as the *Tribune* would have it, and that negotiations for naval stations, the only sort permitted by the Platt law, will not be begun until the new republic is established. It might be well, indeed, to consider the feelings of the Cubans in this matter. Does any one believe that the sight of the American flag flying over Morro Castle would give unlimited joy to the Cubans, or help them to believe that the independence granted to them is anything more than a sham and a pretence?

That is sad news which comes from the Philippines in regard to the four provinces of Batangas, Cebu, Samar, and Bohol. Civil governments were installed in each of them in April and May last with a flourish of trumpets which gave ground for genuine hope that bloodshed might soon be a thing of the past in those districts. In Samar, for instance, as far back as February, Washington's Birthday was celebrated with an ardor and enthusiasm which proved beyond doubt that the true meaning of the greatest American's life had at last penetrated the dense soul of the Filipino. In Cebu, on April 17, Judge Taft himself implored the Visayans with all the eloquence at his command to be good, and to recall to the town the 200 insurgents who were evading one thousand American troops. Then the island was promptly organized under a civil government. At Catbalogan, on April 23, Judge Taft promised additional troops and a vigorous campaign to the "loyal" natives. Now we learn that the new-formed governments have come to an untimely end, and that the military arm, in the person of Gen. Chaffee, had to be invoked. The Commission has turned over the provinces, the dispatch reads, "for the severest kind of warfare," and the unhappy story of burned villages, wasted fields, and blood-spilling is to go on again. The deaths of all four of the officers shot in the last skirmish with Filipinos show that the losses on the American side may still become very costly.

A remark made by Judge Day, the predecessor of Secretary Hay in the Department of State, a few days since, in an address to the Ohio Bar Association, causes some rumbling in the Expansionist newspapers. The paragraph in question reads as follows:

> "We must never lose sight of the fundamental principles of our Government. This obligation is all the more binding now that a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States has made the government *and disposition* of the islands practically one of policy to be determined by the American people."

The words "and disposition" point to the possible separation of the Philippines from the United States by the voluntary action of the latter, and this thought leads one of our morning contemporaries to say:

> "In our humble opinion the thought of abandoning or 'disposing' by gift or sale of a single square inch of 'territory over which the American flag now flies as an emblem of sovereignty, is as far from his [Judge Day's] idea of American policy as it is from the ideas of ninety-nine out of every hundred of his fellow-citizens."

This shows that our esteemed contemporary is not familiar with Judge Day's record as a member of the Paris Conference. On the 25th of October, 1898, a long telegram was sent by the Peace Commissioners to the State Department giving their views of the points that should govern in the settlement with Spain. Three members were for taking and holding the whole of the Philippines. Two members dissented from this policy and sent separate dispatches. Judge Day said: "I am unable to agree that we should peremptorily demand the entire Philippine Island group. In the spirit of our instructions and bearing in mind the often declared disinterestedness of purpose, and freedom from designs of conquest, with which the war was undertaken, we should be consistent in our demands in making peace." So it appears that Judge Day is not now giving expression to new ideas, but holds the same views that he held when he was in a position of responsibility. His attitude as regards the future destiny of the islands and of ourselves is not inharmonious with that of the address published by the Anti-Imperialist League on the Fourth of July.

It is something to get a statement about the steel strike which clears the air of rumors and defines the issue sharply. This is the merit of Mr. Morgan's clear-cut announcement on Friday, in behalf of the United States Steel Corporation, that there can be no compromise on the only question in debate with the Amalgamated Association. From the first, the employers contended that it was a matter of principle, affecting their honor, both as men and as masters, not to consent to the forcible "unionizing" of mills at present non-union. This is now the naked issue, and it will be in vain for President Shaffer to try to cover it up with talk about Wall Street speculation, the tyranny of Trusts, political intrigue, and so on. He has elected to make his fight on an indefensible and outrageous claim, going to the heart of the rights of free labor; and everything else that he may say, or that the newspapers may allege, is wholly beside the main point. This is simply the serious question whether a union tyranny may be set up which will deny to men the right of selling their labor as they will. If that had to be fought

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out some day even at frightful cost, the battle might as well come now as later.

Another ill-considered strike has reached a timely end through the refusal of the United Mine Workers to support the firemen employed in the coal mines of the anthracite region, in their effort to force their employers to grant them an eight-hour day. The strike, which began about ten days ago, seemed to be based more upon the belief that the mine operators could be coerced by danger of stoppage of their pumps than upon any real grievance. It was, in fact, typical of the strikes for trivial causes against which the leading coal operators protested last spring when they were asked to recognize the United Mine Workers as a body with which to deal in all questions arising between the employers and the miners in the coal districts. The failure of the representatives of the miners to secure at that time the recognition which they desired resulted chiefly from the fact, which they were forced practically to admit, that they could not control the miners, who, despite agreements to the contrary, were likely to walk out of the mines on trivial pretexts. That the United Mine Workers refused to support the firemen in this strike, and even went so far as to send their own men to take the place of the strikers and prevent the stopping of the pumps, indicates that they have learned a valuable lesson. Their action renders the firemen's strike an absurdity. It constitutes one hopeful instance at a time when hopeful instances are not too plentiful.

The spirit of the unionist striker, who claims a proprietary right in the employment he abandons, and who is ready to fight for that claim, finds its extreme but logical development in the unpoliced mining sections of the Far Western States. This was illustrated in the Cœur d'Alene district of Idaho, two years ago, and has been again shown within the past thirty days at the Smuggler-Union mine in Colorado. There the Idaho scenes of pillage and murder were paralleled, resulting in the capture of the mining property and the killing or wounding of five of its non-union defenders. Here however, the parallel with Idaho ends. Unlike the fearless Gov. Steunenberg of Idaho, the Populist Gov. Orman of Colorado temporized, threatened to send the soldiers, but did not, and left the mining company the alternative of abandoning its property or compromising with the strikers. It chose the latter course, and the striking miners substituted the pick for the rifle, with no fear, according to the Denver papers, that any of their number will be punished, and with encouragement to further pillage and murder if they cannot dictate the terms of their employment.

It would be quite characteristic of the present chaotic condition of the public mind as to what constitutes the proper attitude towards other nations in other climes, if there should be a determined effort to put up the bars against the Japanese and exclude them from this country, as the California labor-unions wish. That such a proposition would receive no really serious support from the country as a whole is plain on its face. It was the United States which forced Japan to open her gates to the Westerner. If there could be anything more inconsistent and ridiculous than our declining now to receive the people whose acquaintance we forced at the point of the sword some fifty years ago, it would be our forbidding the Chinese to enjoy here that civilization which we are forcing upon them in their own country against their desires. A counter-proposition on the part of China to exclude Americans we all know would be blocked by battle-ships. We need not point out what an outcry there would be if Japan decided to put a ban upon Americans and American manufactures by way of reprisal. Notoriously her citizens are among the best of those that come to us, being sober, industrious, efficient, saving, and intelligent.

A good piece of work has been done by the investigating committee of the Civil Service Reform League, which went through the testimony taken by the House committee that was appointed last winter to overhaul the system of employing subordinate officials for that body. It is not too much to say of the report made by Representative Moody of Massachusetts and his associates on the House committee that its revelations would have created a great sensation except that similar disclosures had repeatedly been made before. Subordinates are nominally appointed by the clerk, the doorkeeper, and the other higher officials who are elected by the House, but actually these officials do nothing but name the persons who are picked out by the Representatives (chiefly of the dominant party), according to a system devised by the latter for the distribution of the patronage among themselves. The consequence is that no official feels the slightest responsibility for a subordinate, and no subordinate has any respect for his nominal superior.

Abuses of every sort naturally flourish without the slightest check. A man is appointed to one position, as telegrapher, the duties of which he does not understand, and then transferred to a place in the stationery room, while the real telegrapher—who in this case was appointed because a number of Democrats said that he had a very large family, and must have something to do—is paid from a $900 appropriation for "hire of horses and wagons and cartage," $40 a month being paid to the teamster who actually does the cartage. Men are appointed to the House library who spend very little time there, with the result that the library is in such condition that "it would require years of intelligent labor to put it in proper order." Men are sometimes appointed to places who never appear except to get their pay, and even this requirement may be waived and the checks sent by mail. One man had been upon the roll as an employee in the cloak-room since the summer of 1897 whom the other employees had never seen and knew nothing about. These are only a few illustrations of a scandalous state of things which calls not only for exposure, but for speedy rectification.

Postmaster-General Smith has taken the question of postal reform into his own hands, so far as the law allows him to do so, and has issued orders cutting off some of the most glaring abuses of the present system. The Government has been spending millions of dollars in carrying "fake" publications and lottery schemes at much less than the cost of freight. Congress has been struggling to rid the service of these parasites for years, but in every instance the schemers have been too strong when the final vote was taken. After successive convulsions over the Loud bill, it succeeded at last in putting an end to the pneumatic-tube delivery in the large cities, which was the most important advance in postal service of recent years, and which the Postmaster-General earnestly desired to continue and extend. But it could do nothing to stop the tremendous abuses prevailing under the head of "second-class matter." It is to be hoped that Mr. Smith will carry out the reform which he has initiated, with unyielding purpose. He may not reach the desired goal of one-cent postage for letters, but it is not impossible to make the Department self-sustaining, which is the first step towards the contemplated reduction and towards other advantages.

Apparently unmistakable signs that this season's corn crop will fall considerably below the average yield, have revived the usual theories of recurrence of crop shortages. A rather general notion exists to the effect that the volume of grain harvests in a given country expands and contracts in a more or less fixed cycle—much as the general movement of trade activity advances and declines. This is true, so far as market prices are a stimulus to, or a corrective of, large harvests. In the nature of things, extreme high prices for an agricultural product during one season will be followed by more extensive planting in the next; and if weather favors, a crop exceeding even the average will be

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harvested. Our own planted area of wheat, for instance, increased five million acres in the first year after the high prices of 1879; the increase in one year after 1890 was nearly four million acres. In the three years following the sudden rise in wheat during 1896, the farmlands extended nearly five million acres beyond the highest previous record. The corn failure of 1894, with the attendant "famine prices," was followed the next year by addition of fully ten million planted acres. On the other hand, the reduction of not quite six million acres in the American wheat-farm area, during the years of depression and slow markets after 1891, is a familiar recent incident. Those were the years when the Farmers' Alliance was clamoring for smaller acreage.

The present Government of Newfoundland was elected principally to revise the famous railway and transportation contract with Mr. R. G. Reid, a task of considerable difficulty, which, when the present preliminary agreement becomes law, it will have successfully accomplished. Gaining control of the transportation and telegraph franchises at a time when the island was virtually bankrupt, Mr. Reid appeared in the light of a public benefactor. When, however, these enterprises had prospered under his direction, it was found that he had driven a sharp bargain with the Colonial Government. His contract carried with it the ownership of some millions of acres of land, and the reversion after fifty years of all the railroad properties under his control. The plan to unload these great properties on a stock company aroused the opposition of the islanders, who last autumn returned a parliament almost unanimously opposed to Mr. Reid's projects. Premier Bond has negotiated an agreement by which Mr. Reid sells the 2,800,000 acres acquired under the present contract to the Government, relinquishes the telegraph lines, and, being indemnified for his initial outlay, engages to run the railroad lines for fifty years, and to expend on works within the colony the $5,000,000 capital of his projected stock company. Under the old contract eventual owner of the most important public utilities of the island, he becomes, under the new arrangement, only the temporary holder of certain valuable franchises. The achievement is a personal triumph for Premier Bond.

Lord Rosebery's description of the Liberal plight has the pungency of phrase which we expect from him. It is something for the sick man to be told so neatly what is the matter with him, even if no hope of cure is held out. In this detached attitude, however, this inability to rally his party to a watchword, or to offer it an inspiring and unifying command, we see Lord Rosebery's fatal disqualification for political leadership. Yet what he says of the need of the Liberal party making haste to find its function and its efficiency is very much to the point. However, the real question is, just what function? and how is it to be made effective? It certainly is not, just now, the holding of office. A party must have not only unity and good leadership, but numbers, if it is to take office. As long as the Liberals have neither, they must look for their function for some time to come, at least, as a party out of power.

What should that be? Why, it should be the function of criticism and expostulation and agitation; and that function, we must say, the dominant section of the Liberal party now seems to us to be discharging very commendably and successfully. Mr. Morley and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Bryce and Mr. Lloyd-George—to mention only the leaders—are, in the first place, manfully asserting the ancient Liberal doctrine of free speech. They decline to be gagged by the miserable pretence that criticism of the Government is giving aid and comfort to the enemy. That of itself is a great service, at this juncture, not only to England, but to all the world. Furthermore, these leaders insist upon telling the truth about the war. They show how it has passed from its first pretended aim of repelling invasion and establishing equal rights for all white men south of the Zambesi, into a war for the destruction of Boer independence, and then into a war for the erection of Crown Colony government. To proclaim the falseness and folly of this course, and to cry aloud for conciliation and for humanity in dealing with the Boers; to stand firmly by the established principles of justice and generosity and self-government in the management of colonies; to protest against applying in South Africa the methods which lost America to England, and to call, rather, for such a wise adjustment as that which saved Canada to the British Empire—all that, surely, is no mean work, and it is the work which the Liberals are doing with more and more energy and success.

According to the most recent dispatches, Lord Roberts is to receive from Parliament a grant of £100,000, "in recognition of his services in South Africa, and to enable him suitably to maintain his peerage." If there is to any mind a sardonic suggestion in this, the fault is not that of Gen. Roberts. If his march to Pretoria, which will long rank as a brilliant achievement, has passed into temporary eclipse, the reason is that the Government did not second his dashing military operations with the requisite statesmanship. English military critics, even some army officers writing anonymously, have pointed out this great error in the general conduct of the South African campaign. It is not only that the lustre of Lord Roberts's feat of arms is dimmed. The Government, by its failure to grasp the situation in its diplomatic aspects, not merely lost the natural fruits of victory, but turned the whole campaign into a military blunder. If there was to be no large measure of conciliation and generous reconstruction ready to be offered the Boers the moment Roberts reached Pretoria, then his march thither was a mistake. He never should have left the Orange River. If slow attrition and the gradual hunting down of every Boer in arms was to be the true policy, it should have been prosecuted foot by foot, district by district. The rapid rush to Pretoria, after the army had been pulled out of its wreck at Bloemfontein, was bad strategy unless the whole war were to be settled by negotiations at Pretoria. Presumably, Lord Roberts counted upon healing measures being ready to supplement the work of his troops. He could not say, but other military men have said it, that an inept Government has done its best to make his successful campaign appear one long and huge blunder.

"We trusted in God's help and foreign intervention." So wrote President Steyn of the Orange Free State, in the official correspondence with the Transvaal authorities, which the British have captured and published. It is not exactly a pleasing variant of the old exhortation to trust God and keep your powder dry. The Boers looked after their powder carefully enough, but that such astute men as their leaders should have believed for a moment, unless they were basely deceived by Dr. Leyds, that any great Power would forcibly intervene on their behalf, one would have said in advance to be impossible. They knew, or if they did not, they were the only ones in the world who did not know, that Germany was out of it. The Anglo-German agreement was an open secret. From France, it is true, the Boers may have thought they had something more than polite good wishes. It has been pretty angrily asserted by men professing to be in Kruger's confidence, that the French Foreign Office promised him "moral and material aid." But this has been given a formal *démenti* by M. Delcassé, and would scarcely, in any case, deserve to be credited. President Steyn's confession is, however, the first one that has been officially and explicitly made that the Boer ultimatum would never have been launched except in the hope of foreign intervention. This is the crowning proof of its folly.

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POLITICS AND THE STRIKE.

President Shaffer's address to the men at Wellsville on Thursday was, in general, moderate in tone, and bore out the reputation he has had of being a man who has a bridle on his tongue. Yet his speech unconsciously revealed the two things upon which he has really pinned his hopes in the steel strike. These are the Stock Exchange and politics. Surely there never can have been a great strike before in which the labor leaders kept their eyes glued to a stock-ticker. Not reports from the works, not telegrams telling of more mills closed, more men taken into the union, further crippling of the employers, but the rise and fall of steel shares in Wall Street! Mr. Shaffer evidently believed that it was safe to make unreasonable demands upon the steel corporation because its financial interests were so vast. The directors, he thought, could not afford to let their securities be clouded even for a day, and so would yield anything rather than fight. But it appears that they saw, even if he did not, the necessity of thinking about to-morrow and next week and next year in Wall Street as well as to-day, and determined to resist extreme demands so as to protect the future of their property. President Shaffer now undertakes to hide his disappointment over the absence of a crash in Wall Street by his delightful tale of $200,000,000 reserve kept by the steel corporation expressly to bolster stocks in case of labor troubles.

The stock market having failed him, Mr. Shaffer now turns to the politicians. "Some of the political leaders will have something to say," he told the strikers at Wellsville. Whether or not this hope proves to be as hollow a staff as the other, it must be confessed that labor agitators have only too much to go upon when they assume that politics will fly to their aid. The political influence in the settlement of the great coal strike last year was too plain for the wayfaring man not to perceive it. And the way in which Republican politicians have made use of Amalgamated Association officials for campaign purposes has long been notorious. John Jarrett was for years a kind of electoral agent of theirs, and had his due political reward. Another former President of the iron and steel workers is now Collector of the Port at Pittsburgh. Labor men can see the significance of such things as quickly as another. Nor did they, we may be sure, omit to ponder on the Babcock bill for taking off the duties on iron and steel. In that they saw the trail of politics. Doubtless they also reflected that many powerful politicians have their fortunes so tied up with the continuance of prosperity that they will move heaven and earth sooner than see it impaired. So they lift up their eyes to politics, whence they think cometh their help. It may, and again it may not; but how far afield all this takes us from the original and ostensible grounds of the strike!

President Shaffer returned to the subject in an interview published on Monday:

> "If the Republican party is going to obtain power only to foster institutions that will destroy labor, it cannot longer rely on the support of labor. I have always been a Republican, but if the worst comes to the worst, and the Administration stands idle and allows the Trust to crush us out of existence, in future I shall be all things to all men. Suppose that the Administration should become offended at J. Pierpont Morgan and his adherents and coadjutors, and, in order to punish them, should present restrictive measures to Congress or laws that will tend to confine the Morgan power, could the Administration have those laws passed? You grant that it could. Then the Administration is all-powerful, and will be responsible for the results of the conflict to labor and to the Republican party."

Exactly how the Republican party is going to help the strikers is not clear. Mr. Shaffer's remarks imply that President McKinley ought to be offended at Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and, in order to coerce him, ought to recommend "restrictive measures" to Congress, and that Congress ought to pass them. This does not mean that Mr. McKinley ought to wait till the first Monday in December, and then advise Congress to pass laws "tending to confine the Morgan power," but that he should take Mr. Morgan into a corner now and tell him that, unless he yields to the demands of Shaffer, he (McKinley) will, in some way, make it hot for the steel combination next winter. We are very sure that Mr. McKinley will do nothing of the kind, and that if he should do so Mr. Morgan would be utterly unaffected by such threats. However yielding the latter might be by nature, he would say to himself that a great many things may happen in four months, that strikes do not generally last so long, and that he can take the chances for that length of time as well as the strikers can. He might say to Mr. McKinley, in the improbable event of the interview which Mr. Shaffer imagines, that it does not follow that Congress would pass the laws aforesaid, "tending to confine the Morgan power," even if Mr. McKinley should recommend them.

We observe, also, that Mr. Shaffer does not indicate the kind of laws which he would like to have passed in this emergency, or tell us how they would tend to confine the Morgan power. He had already said, in the speech to his fellow-workers at Wellsville: "You know that, but for our organization, we should have no better wages than common laborers." So it seems that it is not the tariff that makes high wages for workingmen, but the power to strike. This has always been the contention of the free-traders. Mr. Shaffer calls himself a Republican. If he had spoken his full thought at Wellsville, he would perhaps have said: "The tariff law enables the employers to pay high wages, but they will pocket every cent that the law gives them if we are not so organized that we can demand our share."

That would be a true statement, and we wonder that Mr. Shaffer did not give some hint of it when he was talking about laws of Congress tending to restrict Mr. Morgan. There is one way in which the Republican party can attack the Trusts effectually, and that is by repealing the duties on articles which have been made the subject of monopoly or of attempted monopoly. Some Republican statesmen of position and influence have declared their intention to introduce measures of this kind. Why does not Mr. Shaffer seize this opportunity to scare, if not to "confine," Mr. Morgan and his colleagues? Perhaps Mr. Morgan thinks that he can stand tariff reduction as long as Mr. Shaffer can. Perhaps he thinks that the tariff is of less importance to the Steel Company than some other things now threatening it. However that may be, we insist that the only legislation by Congress that can stir the Republican party from its present lethargy on the subject of the steel strike is tariff legislation. If Mr. Shaffer is really serious in what he says about making the strike a political issue and holding the Republican party responsible for its successful outcome, let him inscribe on his banner, as Chairman Babcock has done, "Free trade in steel and its products." If he will do this, he will "make things lively" in the party at all events. If he does not, the Republican leaders will think he is not in earnest. They will see no terror in his threats, and will not even take the trouble to answer him.

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL OUTLOOK.

Lord Pauncefote is too old a diplomat to be caught sinning against the commandment, *pas de zèle*. We may, therefore, accept as very important and pleasing news his statement made in London about the bright prospects for agreement between Great Britain and the United States on a new Isthmian Canal treaty. As he intimates, there are practically three powers to be brought into harmony—the British Foreign Office, the American Department of State, and the United States Senate. That the new instrument has been drafted so as to meet the views of all three, is the significant fact of Lord Pauncefote's interview. It foreshadows agreement on the main point of a canal neutral in peace and war. Of course, the Senate may again upset the whole arrangement. Its capacities for mischief in meddling with treaties are so great as to draw even from ex-President Cleveland a flash of sarcasm. In his *Century* article on the Venezuela controversy he remarks that it was well the final treaty of arbitration was solely between England and Venezuela, and so did not have

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to run the risk of the "customary disfigurement" at the hands of the Senate.

But granting that there will be a new treaty, that it will be ratified without disfigurement, and that there will be a canal, at what point on the Isthmus will it be cut? Ten years ago everybody in this country would have said at Nicaragua. Two years ago a few people began to say at Panama. Last December, when the report of our own engineers clearly set forth the superiority of the Panama route, on grounds both of location and of economy, a decided revulsion of popular sentiment on the subject set in. It has since gone on increasing in power, until now even the politicians are willing to admit the feasibility and possible desirability of a Panama Canal. The Ohio Republicans, for example, left out of their platform last month the old uncompromising Nicaragua plank, and called simply for a ship canal "across the Isthmus."

One reason for this evident chilling of our Nicaraguan enthusiasm is the discovery that all previous estimates of the cost of a canal from Greytown to Brito have been far too low. Only $100,000,000, it used to be said in the cocksure days of Warner Miller, or, to be perfectly safe and cover all contingencies, $125,000,000. But the preliminary report of our engineers last December put the figure at $200,000,000, exclusive of what it might cost to buy the right of way. And there have been plain hints that even this estimate will prove much too low. Some of the engineers who remained on the Isthmus to make further tests of rock and soil, and river and rainfall, are understood to have brought with them data which will compel pushing up the cost of the Nicaragua Canal to $250,000,000. Sir Weetman Pearson, who dug the huge drainage canal in Mexico, and who thus has had large experience in engineering work in tropical countries, has given it as his opinion that, if the engineers' estimate for a canal at Nicaragua is $200,000,000, the ultimate cost will prove to be little under $300,000,000.

This is a way canals have. When Thiers was Minister of the Interior, the authorities of Marseilles asked permission to cut a canal at a cost of $2,000,000. "If the engineers," said Thiers, "declare that it will cost but $2,000,000, the real cost will be $4,000,000." The good Marseillais complained of the "indecent exaggerations" of Thiers; but when the canal came finally to be built, the actual cost was $6,000,000! Of course, we are aware of that fine patriotic frenzy which leads Congressmen to cry out, "Let the cost be $500,000,000, if you please; still, this country is big enough and rich enough to furnish the money, and we'll do it, too, if Europe so much as hints her displeasure." But that was the talk only so long as the canal was supposed to be somehow a terrible engine of war. If it would, in some mysterious way, enable us to crush the combined fleets of the world, no price could be too high. But those crude notions have been dissipated. Admiral Dewey threw the weight of his authority against them, and Col. Peter C. Hains, in his exhaustive paper before the American Academy, showed that an exclusive canal would be, in time of war, a military weakness. Besides, the new treaty is to make the canal absolutely neutral. It will, therefore, become a very serious question for Congress to decide whether it is prepared to spend $250,000,000 or $300,000,000 in building a canal on which the commercial return is doubtful, and which other nations may use as well as we. For our part, we think it will be a long time before Congress votes the money on those conditions.

All these considerations call attention more sharply than ever to the Panama alternative. That route, it is confessed by our own engineers, has the manifest advantage in point of cost of construction, speed of completion, and ease of operation. There is no need to labor this question. Ah, but our Commission reported in favor of Nicaragua, nevertheless, since it said it could get no satisfactory answers from the Panama Company to the questions how much it would cost to buy out its plant, and on what terms control of its concession could be secured. But there has been a great change in all this since last December. When the Commission comes to make its final report to the President, it will tell him that the Colombian Government and the Panama Company are ready jointly to make over the Panama concession to this country on the fairest terms; and that it has in writing from the Panama Company an offer to sell its plant and dispose of its rights in the work actually done at a price to be fixed by disinterested appraisers. This should make a vast difference in the Commission's report. It should also have a powerful effect on public opinion. In fact, we may say that the present drift of engineering sentiment, as of financial and diplomatic belief, is that if any canal at all is to pierce the Isthmus, it will be at Panama, and not at Nicaragua.

THE NORTHERN PACIFIC CATACLYSM.

Nearly six months ago a series of events began in the stock market which transcended experience, turned the heads of a large part of the community, led to the wildest rise in prices that ever took place here on a specie basis, and culminated in a panic equal in magnitude to the speculation that had preceded it. The peculiarity of the movement was the profound secrecy with which the movers veiled their operations, and the surprises that they encountered during their progress. Of course, people do not go gunning with a brass band. If a man has a plan of campaign in the stock market, he does not publish it in the newspapers. He uses disguises. He covers his tracks, puts out misleading signals, throws people on a false scent, and some persons have even been known to tell downright lies in the buying and selling of stocks. The trouble generally is that there are too many sharp-eyed men looking on. Wall Street is not easily deceived. However delusive appearances may be, somebody is pretty sure to discover the truth, and then it speedily becomes common property.

In this case, however, although the buying, which set the whole country wild, was protracted for three months, the secret never came out until the panic forced it out. The wisest men in the Street were as much at fault as the simplest. In fact, some of the oldest heads, the most conservative leaders, men usually the best informed, were "caught short" of Northern Pacific in a way to show that they had wholly misinterpreted events which had been occurring around them for weeks. Even directors and presidents of the companies concerned were profoundly ignorant of what was going on. The old stagers of Wall Street had seen certain stocks advancing by steady gains to incredible heights. They had seen the country gradually "taking hold" and pushing prices still higher, without concert of action, but by sheer force of numbers. They got an inkling at last that somebody was buying St. Paul in order to amalgamate it with Northern Pacific, but just as this truth began to dawn, the quotations of St. Paul came to a standstill, and then began to sag. Nobody wanted it any more, and the Street was pretty well agreed that whatever might have been the original purpose of the buyers, they had abandoned it.

The reason why the Street had not discovered the truth earlier was that nobody could discern any reason why the Northern Pacific should want the St. Paul, or should want it enough to pay a fancy price for it. The Northern Pacific's eastern terminus is St. Paul, where it has half a dozen important connections and feeders. To choose one of these as its special favorite, said the wise heads of the stock market, would make enemies of all the others and compel competition west of St. Paul. Especially would these consequences follow if the Great Northern should be a partner in the St. Paul purchase. In that case the only way that the Northwestern, the Burlington, the Wisconsin Central, and the Great Western could secure their share of business west of St. Paul would be to construct lines of their own. So the wise men argued, and for these reasons they refused for a long time to believe that there was any foundation for the story that the North-

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ern Pacific and Great Northern people were seeking the ownership of St. Paul. When it became known that this plan had been dropped, the Street assumed that it had been dropped not because the price of St. Paul was too high, but because it was not founded on good business principles.

Consequently, the wise men were still more deceived by the next ground swell in the market. There was an unexplained movement in Burlington shares. This stock began to rise in a manner quite as mysterious as the movement in St. Paul. The advance was persistent, indicating either a very strong purpose to control it or an increase in its earnings. Other stocks advanced by sympathy. If Burlington was worth so much money as the quotations implied, then Rock Island and Union Pacific and Atchison must be equally valuable. So the public construed the situation, and, by buying to take advantage of the rise, the public produced the situation which it expected. The buyers outnumbered the sellers from day to day and from week to week. This made the boom. Some people said that it was due to our great export trade, others that it was in consequence of the election of McKinley and the settlement of the gold standard. The appetite for stocks grew with what it fed on, and the general list continued to rise under the lead of Burlington.

There were some people doing business in Wall Street who had a greater interest to learn the truth about this rise in Burlington than the speculating public had. These were the large holders of Union Pacific. Nothing could deceive them in the long run. They could not understand any better than the public why the Northern Pacific and Great Northern should desire to control the Burlington Road, which was quite out of their field of operations, but they could not be deceived as to the fact that this was the aim and intention of the two northern companies. The Union Pacific people did know, however, that they were paralleled at most points, and were liable to be paralleled at all points, by the Burlington, and that if this property came under the control of a transcontinental rival they would thereafter be very much at the mercy of that rival. They saw that, in a case where vast capital had already been embarked in the enterprise, it would be useless to rely upon argument or to expect benevolence on the part of the rival. It was now too late to defend themselves by buying Burlington away from the other side: negotiations had been carried to a point which made this impossible. The only thing to be done was to buy Northern Pacific itself out of the hands of their opponents.

This was a movement which the Northern Pacific people themselves had not dreamed of, and it was the third surprise that awaited the Street, and the third great impulse given to the general market. The buying was so carefully arranged for in New York, London, and Berlin that the real source of the strength of Northern Pacific was not suspected by anybody. Most people attributed it to the carrying through of the "Burlington deal," which had by this time been made public. The Burlington deal might be a source of weakness rather than of strength to Northern Pacific in the long run, looking at the price paid for the former by the latter, but the speculating public did not look beyond the present quotation, and so the dance continued. The Union Pacific people continued to buy Northern Pacific regardless of cost. They forced up the price till the magnates who had arranged the Burlington deal knew that something was wrong. They discovered too late that, although they had acquired Burlington, they had no longer an undisputed control of their own property. Whether they could command a majority of votes at their next stockholders' meeting was a matter of doubt.

Now comes the fourth surprising event of the series. The trading in Northern Pacific, which had been quite breezy before, soon became a gale and presently a hurricane. Orders came into the market for 10,000-share lots. The buying was furious and the price went sky-high. As the amount of shares was not unlimited, the market was presently cornered without design on the part of anybody. The promoters of the Burlington deal, being committed to carrying it through, must do so at all hazards. They could not afford to be short one single share when the time came for closing the trade. So they bought right and left, in New York, London, and Berlin. How the two opposing lists of shares footed up at last is not publicly known, but a situation was created for the short sellers of Northern Pacific which may be imagined, and which has been frequently described. The cornering of Northern Pacific was the immediate occasion of the cataclysm on the 9th of May, but the cause was the enormous and artificial uplifting of prices due to the purchases for control which had been going on for months, but which the public knew nothing about. The situation was now well suited for compromise. There was no money to be made by further fighting. Much had been lost already by the purchase of shares at higher prices than they were worth, and here the original holders of St. Paul, Burlington, and Northern Pacific had been gainers. A compromise was effected, and the public said that it was an extension of the community-of-interest plan to a vast group of transcontinental roads. It was nothing of the kind. The community-of-interest plan was adopted, not as a choice, but as a matter of necessity, after the opposite plan had failed.

GERMANY AND THE UNITED STATES.

"Theodore von Holleben, ambassador of the young and lusty German Empire, representative of an ancient people whose racial and institutional roots are intertwined with our own—of a people whose scholars and universities have for a century given example and inspiration to the learned world." It was in these words that President Eliot bestowed the degree of LL.D. upon the eminent German diplomat at Harvard's Commencement. The university could not have chosen a better time, nor its head more fitting phrases, to honor the official mouthpiece of a country bound to us by a hundred different ties. The graceful act followed significantly on the efforts of unscrupulous mischief-makers to set the two nations by the ears.

When one considers the historic relations of the two countries, it would seem impossible that there could ever be a serious misunderstanding between them. Yet for the last three years there has become noticeable a feeling of irritation which dates back to the Spanish war, and which is by no means attributable to their healthy mercantile and industrial rivalry. That the Germans were aghast at the unnecessary war into which the United States plunged in 1898 is but too well known. But with this disapproval came no such feeling of bitter resentment and hostility as has marked the German attitude towards England in regard to the Boer war. It is therefore impossible for the mass of the German people to realize to-day that, in certain circles here, they are regarded as secret plotters against the welfare of the United States. The ebullitions of a Lodge amaze as much as they pain. The announcement that a United States naval board of policy finds it necessary to plan to build one battle-ship and cruiser for every similar ship constructed for the Emperor's fleet, leaves the German public somewhat stunned and quite uncomprehending. For more than a hundred years they have regarded their neighbors on the west as their greatest menace, for which they must arm to the teeth at any cost; and the revelation that they are considered so free of European complications as to be able to plot against both South and North America comes as something considerably more than a surprise.

A review of the incidents which have been eagerly seized upon in this country shows their triviality and their slight foundation in fact. The lack of tact displayed by a German admiral in Philippine waters becomes a threat of war in the columns of a sensational press and in an equally tactless after-dinner speech of an American naval officer. Without a single fact to go upon, the Imperialists early announced that the evacuation of the Philippines by the United States

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would mean their conquest or purchase by Germany—thus crediting the Emperor with their own taste for bad bargains. The story that the Emperor's fleet was being swelled merely in order to cope with the American was promptly confuted by a naval officer of high rank, who demonstrated that the German battleships were being built with too limited a coal capacity to cross the ocean. It failed, too, in its purpose of drawing large additional appropriations from Congress.

Next came a tissue of falsehoods and exaggerations in regard to the German colonists in South America, daily displayed in that fantastic newspaper which pretends to represent American journalism in France, the Paris New York *Herald*, and feebly echoed by cable in the *Herald* of this city. The Emperor was planning, it seemed, to subvert the Monroe Doctrine, with the most diabolical ingenuity, by the creation of a great German state in Brazil, and probably by similar ones elsewhere in South America, or perhaps by obtaining control of Brazil herself. These stories being promptly and conclusively denied by the Brazilian Minister in Berlin as "the merest twaddle," as well as by the German Foreign Office, it next became necessary to turn the harmless visit of a German man-of-war to Margarita Island into a surveying expedition preparatory to the purchase or seizure of the island as a base for an aggressive naval attack upon the United States. Here was indeed a *bonne bouche* for the scandal-mongers, and it duly served its turn until completely disposed of by the American Ambassador, Mr. White. It had, however, together with Senator Lodge's outburst in Buffalo, aroused the German press to no small degree, in their ignorance both of the true status of the Paris *Herald* (a journal without news, influence, character, or standing) and of Senator Lodge's record. To complete this midsummer madness and the utter confusion of the unmasked German people, it was next only necessary to assert that, in the event of war, the German-Americans would fight for America. After that only the war remained to be declared.

If there is a comic side to this, the serious one must not be forgotten. It is not only that we have to go to Germany more than to any other country for those university ideals and that inspiration to which President Eliot referred. So close have the trade relations grown between the two countries that, as Mr. Mason, the United States Consul-General in Berlin, has pointed out, "The German empire is, next to England, our best customer," and therefore anything which affects the prosperity of Germany will directly affect that of the United Staes. Both on the intellectual and commercial side the United States can and should gain enormously by closer relations with the motherland of so many of our citizens. Any attempt to disturb the pleasant and satisfactory relations which have so long existed between the two countries merits immediate condemnation. Such actions as Harvard's in presenting the degree to Herr von Holleben, and Mr. Andrew D. White's repeated public utterances on behalf of friendly relations between the two countries, make enormously in the other direction. They cannot be too heartily welcomed. Serious friction with Germany would not only be inexcusable and indefensible, but a national misfortune.

THE GLASGOW EXHIBITION.

LONDON, June 26, 1901.

I might as well say at once that the Glasgow Exhibition interested me chiefly because of its Art Gallery. One big international exhibition must necessarily be very like another, and Glasgow—though I should not have ventured to hint it while I was there—is a trifle overshadowed by memories of Chicago and Paris.

Everything has been done, and (it must be admitted) successfully within the limits, to make the show attractive. It is held in Kelvin Grove Park, the most delightful part of Glasgow. Pleasantly wooded banks rise gently from either side the Kelvin. The University and rows of Glasgow's gray houses overlook the open space from the surrounding heights, and the Exhibition buildings are distributed so as to interfere as little as possible with the pretty walks and shady corners of the Park. These buildings are, of course, mostly white; Chicago was the model it will take many long years to supplant. Only, it is curious to note how much less appropriate the white seems here than on the shores of Lake Michigan or the Seine. Under Glasgow's low, gray skies, all the brilliancy and gayety has gone out of it. Indeed, in the end, in every country, the color people have chosen, perhaps unconsciously, for their architecture, will usually be found the color demanded by their climate and atmospheric conditions; the gray of Scotland's castles and cottages strikes one as less gloomy than this expanse of white, dull and hard without the sunshine of the South or the fierce dry heat of an American summer. As for the architecture, it is of the distinct Exhibition style, a little less extravagant than in Paris, much less stately than in Chicago; a medley, partly rococo, partly Spanish Renaissance, partly Oriental, partly eccentric, leaving one with an impression of domes and towers and gilding and flamboyant sculpture, amusing perhaps for the moment, but irritating if destined to be permanent.

The exhibits in the buildings are what such exhibits usually are. I know little of machinery, but I fancy much is included that would interest the man of a mechanical turn of mind. In the main building there is the accustomed industrial display. Russia has put up two or three pavilions apart, Canada one, Japan one; Austria, France, and other countries contribute to some small extent. But, throughout the industrial section, the exhibitors are chiefly Scotch; even England contributes as little in proportion as to the Paris show last summer; and, it seems to me, the bazaar element, always present more or less on such occasions, becomes overprominent. Indeed, since I have come away from Glasgow, the shopkeepers in the town have protested against the brisk trade done in different stalls. Then there are the inevitable amusements—music, diversified by bagpipes; a water-chute, a switchback, an Indian theatre. If there be no gay Rue de Paris, surely this proves a small surprise in a land where men take their pleasures sadly, and do not know how to be frivolous with grace.

So far, the Glasgow Exhibition conforms to the all but invariable type. The Englishman who crosses the border for the first time may find novelty in the daily performance of the pipers, and the variety of scones and solid cakes in the tea houses, for Glasgow has managed to give a local flavor to many details. But the one important feature of the show, a clue really to the history of Glasgow's development during the last fifteen or twenty years, is the Art Gallery.

Of late, the corporations of most of the large provincial towns in England and Scotland have been trying to turn themselves into art patrons. Already, people begin to go to Liverpool not only to take the steamer, but to see the Rossetti and other things in the Walker Art Gallery, or to Manchester for the Madox Brown frescoes in the Town Hall, or to Birmingham for the Pre-Raphaelite pictures in the permanent collection. But even these three big centres, where something substantial has been achieved, are eclipsed by Glasgow, though nowhere, perhaps, would so little be looked for as in so essentially commercial, rather gloomy and squalid, decidedly money-making a town. But it is Glasgow that can boast, as every one knows by now, a school of painters who, if they have not fulfilled their first promise, are still the most accomplished group of artists in Great Britain; Glasgow that had the intelligence to buy Mr. Whistler's beautiful "Carlyle" at a time when the world had not yet awakened to its value; Glasgow that, emulating Paris, has commissioned its most distinguished painters to decorate the new Municipal Building; Glasgow, in a word, that not only gave so successful an exhibition in 1888 as to make a good profit by it, but determined to invest this profit, increased by voluntary subscriptions, in a new Art Gallery and Museum Building, "to be the future home of the art and science collections of the Corporation." This building, now finished, stands at the southwest corner of Kelvin Park, and its inauguration was really the most important ceremony at the opening of this year's Exhibition.

In Paris last summer, while the architect was allowed any excess so long as there was question only of temporary buildings, he was kept, or kept himself, well in restraint when it came to the two Palaces of the Fine Arts. Much the same is true of the Glasgow architect. He has been flamboyant after his own fashion in the Main Building, the restaurants, and so on, but he has been careful to chasten his style in designing an Art Gallery that is to remain a monument to Glasgow's artistic enterprise. He has maintained the same discretion in the matter of color: the building is of a red sandstone from Scotch quarries, in keeping with the atmosphere and the characteristic severity of the town. The Glasgow architect in this case happens to be a London architect, Mr. J. W. Simpson, and the ornament is the work of sculptors collaborat-

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ing under the immediate superintendence of Mr. Frampton, and, in certain special details, the work of Mr. Frampton himself. One's standard is very different in judging a permanent building. It seems, therefore, a matter of regret that the Gallery, standing as it does, is somewhat dwarfed by the University, which, at least, produces a greater effect of height and size, and has the further advantage of towering above the new building from higher ground. From the southern side the Gallery is just now screened its entire length by a covered-in "Grand Avenue," useful enough in rainy Glasgow, but architecturally an excrescence. But for that matter the big staring white palace and smaller houses and pavilions so surround the Gallery as to interfere with, if they do not belittle, the architectural effect, and I should hesitate to pronounce an opinion until their disappearance at the end of the fair. But I must confess myself disappointed with the sculpture. To intrust it entirely to the superintendence of a man of Mr. Frampton's position and ability was something of an experiment, and it may be too much was hoped for. The central arch of the double stairway leading to the main entrance is not only filled but *crowded* by Mr. Frampton's group of St. Mungo with the figures of Art and Music; his bas-reliefs in the spandrels modestly efface themselves, as if he had been only too determined to avoid the French sculptor's over-emphasis; while the allegorical figures perched above the central and end pavilions are the designs, I believe, of another artist, who seems to have quite forgotten the angle at which they would be seen—an angle that reveals only an unfortunate clumsiness of pose and draperies.

But the interior of the building is more disappointing. A fine, well-proportioned central hall is connected by two long courts with four pavilions, two at either end. The galleries run round these courts, and occupy the pavilions. Down stairs the side light makes them useless for pictures; up stairs, they have been narrowed for the sake of an arcaded promenade opening upon courts and central hall. If the object of the building was, as one thought, the exhibition of works of art, then it is hardly a success. Space has been so recklessly wasted that I have heard the building described as a Casino, with a few odd corners for pictures; and the description, if exaggerated, is not wholly unmerited. The loan collections that all but fill it explain, by their arrangements, how little room there is to spare.

These collections are, practically speaking, four. One of the long courts and the surrounding galleries on the lower floor are devoted to "Scottish archæology and history," a wonderful series of pictures, sculptures, relics, papers, any and everything that could help you to follow the development of Scotland, from the days of arrowheads to the yesterday of Gordon and Livingstone and the country's latest heroes. Here is an unrivalled opportunity for the student of Scotch history. Then, in one of the long galleries at the other end of the building, and here, there, and everywhere, in odd rooms and passageways, are what the catalogue calls "art objects," a series recalling, on a smaller scale, a very much smaller scale, the Petit Palais of last summer. Finally, the other courts and galleries are filled by retrospective and contemporary collections of painting, sculpture, and drawing, "formed with the view of illustrating the progress of art during the nineteenth century." Considered by the standard thus set, they fail lamentably; they illustrate chiefly the amiability of certain collectors in lending their treasures, and, apparently, the directors' readiness to take whatever fell in their way with least trouble to themselves. But, considered merely as loan collections, got together for the purpose of giving pleasure, not instruction, then their success is beyond dispute. Certainly, many of the centuries' masterpieces are scattered through the galleries.

You begin with the "Deceased British Artists." To the opening years of the nineteenth century belong the last of the one distinguished school of British portrait painters—Romney, Hoppner, Lawrence, and Raeburn, who is just commencing to be appreciated, and who, though I do not think justice is fully done to him, reveals his power in two portraits of elderly, gray-haired men, marvellous as renderings of character and triumphs of technique. But, after all, the portrait painters of this group carried out the traditions of the eighteenth century, and cannot be said to have influenced the art of the nineteenth. The new inspiration came from the landscape-painters, and what is there to represent a genuine movement, felt not only in Great Britain, but in France, and therefore throughout the entire Continent? I say nothing of the several examples of Turner, for Turner also, at his best, has more in common with the eighteenth century; at his most original, he inspired no one but himself and, perhaps, Ruskin. But what of Constable, Bonington, the Norwich men? Bonington is the most fully represented—two paintings and four water-colors. There are, however, only a couple of Constables, a single Cotman, two Cromes; though, at almost every step, you chance upon a landscape by Chalmers, of Alexander Fraser, both second-rate artists, who happen to have been Scotchmen.

Another distinct movement, even if its influence ended with the men who originated it, was the Pre-Raphaelite, and this is amply represented. To Dyce, who deserves to be more famous than he is, the Pre-Raphaelites owed something, and Dyce, fortunately, has not been forgotten. Millais's "Carpenter Shop" and "Lorenzo and Isabella," Rossetti's "Mariana," Ford Madox Brown's "Work"—the most genuinely "Pre-Raphaelite" picture, and the most extraordinary of them all—characteristic examples of Mr. Holman Hunt, Mr. Windus, Mr. Brett (the latter three, however, appearing in another section)—are here, but so scattered as not to tell half as well as they should. Indeed, the hanging of this historical series is forlorn. Only upon reaching the water-colors do you find any attempt at chronological order, or the grouping together of the same men and same schools. But how keenly the improvement is realized when a screen is reached with, on one side, a number of drawings by the Pre-Raphaelites, on the other, the work of Pinwell and Fred Walker, who owed their scrupulous minuteness to the Pre-Raphaelites, and who were in such close sympathy in their own aims and methods.

In the "Living British Artists" section it looks as if the hanging committee had not been without a pleasant sense of humor. One of the three galleries is full of the pictures of Academicians and their friends, hung in the established Academical fashion, very suggestive of Burlington House. In the other two galleries the Academical element is less obvious; harmony has been observed in the general treatment of the walls; though, because of the restricted space, there is more crowding than there should be, many of the canvases overflowing to the arcade, where, so poor is the light, they can barely be seen. This contemporary collection is far more representative than the British section was in Paris last summer. But the selection still seems due largely to chance, and numerous omissions could be pointed out. Even the Glasgow school is not as complete as might have been expected. Mr. McTaggart, practically unknown outside of Scotland, but honored in Glasgow as one of the pioneers—a painter of the sea, with a fine feeling for light and atmosphere and the movement of water—may be studied in almost every phase. But Mr. MacGregor, one of the leaders, and essentially one of the most accomplished, has absolutely nothing. And here, again, one would have liked to see all the Scotchmen grouped together. It is a pleasure to note that Mr. Whistler, who appears with British artists, as there is no American section, and who received such scant courtesy in Glasgow in 1888, is now given the centres that are his by rights—one for the beautiful "Princesse du Pays de la Porcelaine," the other for the stately "Fur Jacket." It is curious that Mr. Sargent should be among the absent. The only painting by him is a portrait of Mr. Penrose, hung down stairs with the architectural drawings. Space, however, has been found for Mr. Abbey's large "Trial of Queen Catherine" from last year's Academy.

The collection ends with a "foreign" section, absurd if it were considered as representative of the development of anything but the taste and knowledge of collectors in Scotland. "Foreign" here means Dutch and French. There is a solitary Lenbach, a chance Fortuny, but all the other pictures and water-colors are the work not only of Frenchmen and Dutchmen, but, with not very notable exceptions, of one school of Frenchmen and Dutchmen. However, if you want to study this school, if you want to know something of the artists, now called the Romanticists, in their most masterly performances, no better opportunity could be had. Paris, last summer, could show more Corots, but nothing to compete with that most exquisite of all his idyls, "Le Rond des Enfants," or with the dignified "Don Quixote," or the lovely little study of the nude in open air, "The Bather." Nowhere else could so many fine Monticellis, or such delightful examples of Matthew Maris, an artist who grows shyer and shyer of exhibitions, be found in one and the same gallery. And it seemed to me I had never before understood the full glory of Millet as a colorist, or of Jacque as a pastoral poet. Of the artists who followed the Romanticists in France, there is next to nothing. But, when the little that is shown is so splendid, one can afford to forget the much that is not shown.

The sculpture is gathered together chiefly from recent Academies. Save for M. Rodin's John the Baptist and one of the figures from the Calais group, Mr. Macmonnies's horses and one or two smaller works by M. Meunier and M. Vallgren, the "foreign" sculptor might be supposed not to have existed

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during the century. For the Arts and Crafts, only a down-stairs gallery in one of the pavilions has been reserved, though upon photographs about three times the space has been lavished.

The Black-and-White shares the faults and virtues of the other sections. Many fine drawings and prints are included, but the omissions are only too conspicuous, if you accept as serious the desire to illustrate its development throughout the last hundred years. The hanging is bewildering. Old work and new jostle each other. Etchings, woodcuts, lithographs, and drawings are all mixed up together in hopeless confusion, and the individual artist's work is scattered from one end of the badly lit gallery to the other. Take one instance: two of Goya's famous lithographs of bullfights hang side by side so low it is almost impossible to see them; you go further on, and discover a third badly skied; further still, and a fourth looks down also from the sky line. Nor is this an exceptional case. But, as I have said, in the midst of the confusion are many things you are glad to see. There is an important series of Mr. Whistler's etchings. Other American artists well represented are Mr. Abbey and Mr. Pennell, but better and more characteristic examples could have been found of Mr. Howard Pyle and Mr. Remington.

If I add that two small reception-rooms have been hung with a few well-chosen "Old Masters," I have said enough to explain that the Art Gallery, unsatisfactory in some respects, is still more than worth the journey to Glasgow. N. N.

FOUCHÉ.—I.

PARIS, July 3, 1901.

The most important historical work published lately on the Napoleonic period is the 'Fouché,' in two octavo volumes, of M. Louis Madelin, former member of the French School at Athens, and professor of history in the French University. M. Madelin has not avoided the error, which is common to all biographers, of magnifying their heroes and finding excuses for their faults. In the case of Fouché these errors are too often crimes; and when M. Madelin defended his thesis before the professors of the Sorbonne (for his remarkable book was originally a thesis, which he had to produce and defend in order to obtain the degree of *agrégé* of the University), after long discussions, one of the professors became impatient, and said, much to the amusement of the audience: "This is all very well, M. Madelin, but, after all that has been said, your Fouché was a scoundrel (*gredin*)."

This *gredin* played such an important part that history cannot neglect him, and throw him away among all the criminal characters that sprung out of the confusion of the revolutionary times. He may well be said to have been, with Talleyrand, the most important civil servant of Napoleon; and, strangely enough, as both owed their great fortune to him, so both betrayed him and became the agents and servants of the Bourbons. They both appear to us, at a distance, as arch-traitors, and both covered and colored their treason with patriotic reasons. They both have something Mephistophelian in their character which justifies the great severity of the judgment passed upon them by Napoleon at St. Helena. Talleyrand has been judged more leniently by history than Fouché; he had not been one of the cruellest actors in the Revolution, and he was so fortunate as to be able to render great services to his country in the latter part of his life. Fouché ended his days in disgrace, while Talleyrand died in a sort of apotheosis, after the London Conference, where he presided at the creation of the new kingdom of Belgium.

On the 17th of November, 1781, the seminary of the Oratory of Jesus in Paris received a new pupil, a young man, twenty-two years old, of humble aspect, coming from Nantes. His name was Joseph Fouché. He belonged to a family of sailors, and, like almost all his future colleagues in the Convention, to a middle-class family in easy circumstances. The tradition will have it that Fouché was a priest; the tradition is wrong—he never was a priest, nor even engaged in the major orders; he was only tonsured and a "confrère de l'Oratoire," a title which he kept till 1792. On leaving the seminary, he became a semi-lay professor at the college at Juilly where the aristocratic families of Paris sent their children. **He was afterwards sent to Arras, where he was professor of physical science, and made the acquaintance of a lawyer, Maximilian Robespierre, and of Lazare Carnot. It is said that he made an offer to Robespierre's sister, Charlotte, which she accepted, and that he did not fulfil his promise. Did he try to repair a fault when, afterwards, being already Minister of the Empire, he procured a pension for Charlotte?**

In 1789 Robespierre was appointed a member of the States-General, and borrowed money from Fouché to pay his expenses at Versailles. Fouché early became imbued with the ideas of the Revolution; sent back to Nantes, he threw himself completely into the movement, and became a member of the club of the Friends of the Constitution. As there were at Nantes many families living by the slave trade, these Friends of the Constitution thought it necessary to protest against a speech by the Girondin Brissot, who had eloquently attacked the slave trade, and Fouché made himself their mouthpiece. He was already what we call now an opportunist, conforming his ideas to the circumstances of the case. Brissot denounced him justly. "The public," he said, without doing him the honor to name him, "will see with indignation a priest, and a priest who calls himself a patriot, becoming the apostle of the most revolting brigandage, which is condemned by the Scriptures."

Fouché was elected, in September, 1792, a member of the Chamber; he married and went to Paris, where he took lodgings in the Rue St. Honoré. He took his seat on the right side of the Assembly, as he represented Nantes, with Daunou, Condorcet, and Vergniaud, the Girondins. He spoke little at the Convention, alleging as a pretext the weakness of his voice, but in reality preferring to witness the course of events rather than to control it. When the trial of Louis XVI. began, Fouché hesitated between his desire to please his constituents at Nantes, who held the opinions of the Girondins, and his desire to vote with the majority. He even prepared a speech in which he pronounced against capital punishment. This he read to Daunou, and told him to place himself in the centre in order to hear it when he had to give his vote. When Fouché showed himself at the tribune, on the 16th of January, Daunou was at his place; but he heard Fouché utter only one word, "La mort," with his feeble voice. The next day Fouché published a violent pamphlet, 'Reflections of J. Fouché on the Judgment of Louis Capet.' The Girondins had joined the Mountain, and Fouché was in the majority. He often spoke afterwards of "the unfortunate monarch," "the virtuous monarch"—especially after 1814; he pretended to repent his "fault" even a few weeks before his death; he had been deceived; he had condemned the "horrible phantom which had been presented to the Convention," not the real Louis XVI. M. Madelin justly protests against these utterances? "He never was more cold-blooded during a crisis. . . . If it be true that he changed his opinion on the day when he had to declare himself, it was because the majority was changing from day to day; he followed it and swelled it."

The day when he became a regicide was a turning-point for Fouché. He now belonged to the Mountain, that bloodthirsty and cruel party which inaugurated in France the Reign of Terror, and has left in history a name that can never be forgotten. Fouché became one of the most systematic Terrorists, and the chronicle of the missions which were confided to him by the Convention in the Provinces is among the most repugnant pages in the history of France. Fouché played the part of proconsul in the year 1793 at Nantes, Troyes, Lyons, in all the departments of the west and of the centre of France; he was responsible for the wholesale executions at Lyons. *Ex uno disce omnes.* On the 14th Frimaire, in the plain of Les Brotteaux, between two parallel ditches, destined to be graves, sixty-four young men, in chains, were placed; in front of them were placed the guns of the Revolutionary army. The victims sang the admirable "Chant du départ." At a signal given from the stand where sat the Commissioners of the Convention, the guns were fired, and the martyrs fell.

M. Madelin finds an excuse in the fact that Fouché was accompanied at Lyons by the furious and half-mad Collot-d'Herbois; he also contrasts the tone of his correspondence with the Convention and the Committee of Public Safety and his real action in some places.

"When one reads this correspondence, one is really stupefied, terrified, especially when one reflects what the man really was, what he must have been. Written by a madman like Carrier [the Carrier who drowned his victims in the Loire], such letters are horrible, but not surprising. But Fouché—that cold, skeptical, ironical, shrewd man! The mask is abominable, but it is a mask. His letters written from Lyons are atrocious in their cool ferocity; the literature of the pro-consuls in their mission offers hardly any more revolting, The Deputy from Nantes appears in them like an executioner intoxicated by the blood which he sheds. What an account he gives of the *mitraillades* at Lyons, of the executions in the Place des Terreaux! Expressions of a mild humanitarianism serve as an accompaniment to the discharge of the guns which mow down in an instant a hundred, two hundred, five hundred victims. . . . With all this, we have anti-religious declamations."

All this correspondence, all the decrees issued in various cities, are, in the opinion of M. Madelin, but a screen behind which Fouché conceals his real want of demagogic faith.

"He knows that Robespierre watches him from the Committee of Public Safety. He will not incur the terrible reproach of moderatism. He is committed to a road which

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he must follow. He is of the most radical group, has adopted its ideas, defends them, since Hébert, Chaumette, Collot, Billaud retain power under their influence—for this is the persistent character of Fouché: he is the man of the victorious faction, and the victorious faction in the summer and the autumn of 1793 is the Hébert faction. Robespierre trembles before Hébert, who is master of Revolutionary opinion, thanks to his *Père Duchesne*, which sells sometimes 600,000 copies a day. Chaumette proclaims Atheism as the official religion, and celebrates the Feast of Reason in the Church of Notre Dame; Ronsin is at the head of the Revolutionary army, Bouchotte is Minister of War; and a little later, at the end of 1793, at the beginning of 1794, Collot and Billaud balance in the Committee the influence of Robespierre and of Couthon. Under these guarantees of protection, the man of circumstances reveals himself suddenly as the boldest theorician of the party, giving lessons in Jacobinism to Hébert, in Atheism to Chaumette, in Communism to the Commune of Paris."

On the 17th Germinal (April 8), 1794, Fouché came back to Paris, after his bloody proconsulate of seven months, with his wife and a young child dying of consumption. He returned the next day to the Convention. He took his seat with the Mountain, and could see the empty seats of a hundred Deputies who were there no more. Vergniaud had been guillotined on the 30th of October, Daunou was in prison, awaiting death; Condorcet was in hiding. Neither was Danton any longer there, nor Camille Desmoulins. Robespierre had decimated the Convention, and what remained of it was in a state of abject terror. Fouché knew himself to be an object of hatred and of contempt to Robespierre; all he had done in the provinces would be vain if Robespierre had condemned him in his mind.

Correspondence.

IMPERIALISM VERSUS UNION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am cited as saying that the spectacle of the United States "going in for tropical islands and subject races has greatly cooled the ardor of those Canadians who had advocated union with their neighbors on the south." There can be no doubt what the effect of such a spectacle must be. You dominate Cuba and Porto Rico. You annex the Philippines, in this case burning the Declaration of Independence. The process is not likely to end here, especially as your own Southern States are apparently reverting to the social relations, which carry with them the political tendencies, of slavery. The impelling force, apparently, is the craving of the capitalist for new fields of exploitation to be operated with servile labor. It is not unlikely that the vision of the slave-owner will be fulfilled. Cuba, prime object of his desire, you control. You will have the West Indies, San Domingo, Mexico, probably everything north of Panama. The Nicaraguan Canal will be a lure. From all these extraneous sources unrepublican influence will flow. Then one of two things, apparently, must happen: either your Commonwealth, with or without change of form, must become an empire, or there must be a severance of the Union. Prudence enjoins Canada to await the issue.

In the meantime, the question of commercial reciprocity is independent of that of political union. One is glad to see that in this respect the dictates of nature, long thrust out of sight by monopoly, have once more a chance of recognition.

Yours faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, July 22, 1901.

HESSIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call the attention of your readers to a request of Prof. Edward Schroeder of the University of Marburg. Professor Schroeder is making a study of the repute of the Hessians in America, and he is desirous of obtaining every scrap of information upon the subject. He is looking particularly for popular expressions mentioning or referring to the Hessians, and is prepared for vulgar or insulting terms or phrases. Any information about the matter should be addressed to Herrn Prof. Dr. Edward Schroeder, Marburg, Germany.—Very truly yours,

George Hempl.

Ann Arbor, Mich., July 17, 1901.

Notes.

'Secrets of the Woods,' by W. J. Long, is on the point of publication by Ginn & Co.

Thormanby's 'Kings of the Rod, Rifle and Gun' is promised for next month by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Cassell & Co. will soon publish 'An Eton Boy's Letters,' by Nugent Bankes.

The Cambridge Encyclopædia Company of this city will issue next month 'A History of the Precious Metals, from the Earliest Times to the Present,' by Alexander Del Mar.

The Philippine Information Society, No. 12 Otis Place, Boston, announces that its first series of pamphlets will be finished in September, bringing the history up to July, 1901. A second (monthly) series of "Facts about the Filipinos" will be begun in October, and will be a repository of current information derived from Government reports, Congressional debates, etc., in addition to special correspondence from the islands. The subscription price is $1 per annum; but the membership fee of $5 covers all the Society's publications.

The late F. Max Müller died before completing his autobiography, which has been published since his death as a torso ('My Autobiography: A Fragment,' Scribners). The book is full of lively anecdotes, and has a certain value in depicting University life in Germany and at Oxford half a century ago. The characteristics of the author's Auld Lang Syne are conspicuous in the present volume, which gives a somewhat painful impression of the author's vanity. But the book is well written and entertaining, though Müller's attitude toward his contemporaries is unpleasing, and his statements in regard to his own importance as a scholar must be taken *cum grano*.

The same writer's 'Last Essays' (First Series; Longmans, Green & Co.), also published since his death, contain papers (republished) on language, folklore, and other subjects. The editor, Professor Müller's son, announces in the preface that another volume of selected essays will appear in the autumn of this year. It is a pity that the author did not live to revise these essays, which, in their present form, repeat each other to a certain extent, and even contradict each other's views, as in the estimate of Tacitus's 'Germania.' Historical students will be interested in the paper on the Schleswig-Holstein Question, and, in that entitled Coincidences; while the essay on Kant and that on Thought and Language will attract the student of philosophy. As all the essays have either been delivered as addresses or appeared in print in recent years, between 1887 and 1899, no extended notice is necessary; they are very welcome in their new and convenient form.

There is a class of persons whom 'Knowledge, Belief, and Certitude,' by Frederick Storrs Turner (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), will precisely suit. Let a man, with no intention of seriously studying philosophy or of forming any decided opinions about it, wish principally to kill time, and incidentally to gain from some candid and fair informant so much acquaintance with the doctrines of Riehl, Hegel, Lotze, Wundt, Bradley, Hodgson, and other philosophers whom he sometimes hears praised as can be gained without the inconvenience of his being called upon to do any thinking, or of being importuned with paradoxes, and we do not know what author we could recommend to him so confidently as Mr. Turner. For a young student of the subject, however, no teaching could possibly be worse. As for the trained metaphysician, he may have his reasons for looking into the book; but he will not do so in any hopes of improving his comprehension of epistemology, after the first five minutes. Let nobody attempt this book whom either twaddle irritates, or who attaches the slightest value to his time.

Publishers do not shrink from putting on the same list works which compete with each other. Henry Holt & Co., who brought out Gasc's excellent French and English Dictionary in 1898, already issue another by Prof. Hjalmar Edgren of the University of Nebraska and Percy B. Burnet, formerly an assistant professor in the same institution. The new volume is somewhat squat in form, and mounts up to 1,252 pages, in double columns instead of the triple columns of Gasc's 956 pages. Its arrangement is much more condensed, and ease of alphabetical reference is sacrified to derivative grouping. *Ferme*, for example, is to be sought in the section introduced by *fermant*. The wisdom of this will always be doubted, as the first resort to a dictionary is most frequently, beyond comparison, for definition and idiom. In neither of these respects is the new candidate for public favor so full as Gasc. *Fer* is a word in point; *fenêtre* and *ferme* still more strikingly so. Honors are divided in the case of *fête*. (We are running through a single letter.) On the other hand, Edgren and Burnet indicate pronunciation, etymology, and century of first appearance; matters disregarded by Gasc. They also, as under *feindre*, show the irregular parts of a verb. On the whole, the two dictionaries supplement each other, and the later one has had the advantage of the complete Hatzfeld-Darmesteter-Thomas 'Dictionnaire Général.' They will not quarrel on the same shelf any more than they do in Messrs. Holt's list. The later work has the more open typography.

'The Story of Bruges,' by Ernest Gilliat-Smith, is the latest addition to the Dent-

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Macmillan "Mediæval Towns." After a somewhat elaborate historical sketch of the history of Bruges, from the earliest times to its incorporation in Maximilian's empire, the architecture and paintings in the present city are dispatched in some hundred pages. The author reminds us that, though the records of Bruges are practically complete from the end of the thirteenth century to the present day, the history of the town is yet to be written. Craving a pioneer's indulgence for himself, he pays a deserved tribute to the illustrators, Edith Calvert and Herbert Railton, whose work notably enhances the attractiveness and value of his book.

A new treatise on the 'Conflict of Laws, or Private International Law,' by Raleigh C. Minor (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), merits attention on account both of the novelty of the analysis underlying it and of the conscientious care with which the author has attempted to work out his theory. He finds the great foundation of private international law in *Situs*. This leads to rather curious results, for we have not only the "Situs of Status" and "Situs of Contracts," but the "Situs of Remedies." If this view is correct, the conflict of laws might more properly be called the Law of Situs, a rather startling conclusion to those familiar with the subject as treated by Story and Dicey. The treatise is a valuable addition to the learning on the subject.

Frederick N. Judson of the St. Louis bar is the author of 'A Treatise upon the Law and Practice of Taxation in Missouri' (Columbia: E. W. Stephens). The book is a review of local law and decisions, and embodies the conviction of the author that the Missouri system (not unlike that of other States in principle) is a confessed failure so far as securing equality of taxation is concerned. There is also some discussion of suggested reforms and remedies. It seems that at some points the taxpayer is better off in New York than in Missouri. He can, at any rate, invoke the power of the courts to correct inequality of assessment, while in Missouri the assessors, if they know what they are about, can make this impossible for him (p. 311).

John S. Ewart's 'Exposition of the Principles of Estoppel by Misrepresentation' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.) is a learned and very acute treatise, which deserves more extended examination than we can here give it. It can be tested only by detailed comparison with Mr. Bigelow's work. It seems to us, so far as we have been able to look into it, to throw a great deal of new light on the subject, as, for instance, in the discussion of estoppel as a rule of evidence (pp. 188, 195).

Charles P. Norton's 'Hand-book of the Law of Notes and Bills' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., Horn-Book Series) has reached a third edition. This has been prepared by Francis B. Tiffany, and contains, in an appendix, the Negotiable Instruments Statute now adopted by so many States.

The current Proceedings of the Vermont Historical Society (Burlington) contain Dr. Matthew H. Buckham's address last November on the late Edward J. Phelps, with a good portrait. The appendix gives particulars of the acquisition by the Society of the sword of Lord Byron, through the heirs of the late Col. Jonathan P. Miller, one of the American Philhellenes. A portrait of Col. Miller, also a prominent abolitionist, has likewise been presented to the Society.

In the 23d annual report of the Providence Public Library, just published, attention may be drawn to original statistics of American public libraries, showing their order by volumes (above 20,000) and by annual book expenditure; the above institution ranking (with its 93,368 volumes) seventeen in the first list and only forty-seven in the second. Even Boston falls to third place in expenditure, being outranked by the Free Library of Philadelphia and by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

The *Moniteur*, one of the oldest and, in earlier days, one of the best known of the world's journals, ceased to appear last month after an existence of more than a century. Founded in 1790, it was the official Government organ till 1868, when the *Journal Officiel* was founded. For the last thirty years it has been a Royalist newspaper.

A brief autobiographical sketch of Sofia Kovalevsky, in the July *Rundschau*, should be brought to the notice of those whose interest in that remarkable woman has not ceased with her death. It is a translation (by Sophie von Adelung) of an account which the great mathematician gave of herself at the house of a friend during her last visit at St. Petersburg, in May, 1890, and which was, with her consent, taken down in shorthand.

The editor of the *Journal of Pedagogy* (vol. xiii., No. 4) welcomes, as a gratifying sign of progress in public-school administration, the tendency toward greater centralization of power. He holds that all authority on educational matters in any locality should be concentrated in one officer, the Superintendent, whose tenure of office ought to be secure at least during a fixed number of years. To the reader the question naturally suggests itself, What if the officer in question is a political wire-puller, who has obtained his position not because of any distinction as an educator, but through his "influence" with members of the Board? Unfortunately, a large proportion of the school superintendents in the country are men of this class. But even so, as long as they are in position, is it not better that the responsibility for the condition of the schools should rest upon them, instead of somewhere between the Superintendent and the Board, in consequence of continual "specific mandates" by the latter?

The New Radcliffe Library, a building for the reception of scientific books, is a recent noteworthy gift of the Drapers' Company to the University of Oxford. Heretofore a considerable proportion of the revenues of this ancient guild has been devoted to technical and scientific education in London and the great manufacturing and mining centres, but this is the first contribution which it or any of the great London companies has made to the educational resources of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor, in accepting the gift, called attention to the fact that, through the reduction of rents, the revenues of the colleges and University amounted now to about 50 per cent. only of their former income; and, "with the enormous increase of the calls upon them through the multiplication of the subjects of study, and especially through the rapid growth and constantly increasing subdivision of the natural sciences, they were barely able to maintain their educational efficiency without incurring pecuniary obligations beyond their power to meet."

The Oxford Local Examinations, which are being held this month at more than two hundred places throughout the empire, including Hongkong, Malta, and Natal, are an indication not only of the interest in the higher education, but of its changes and direction. The number of senior, junior, and preliminary candidates is 10,583, an increase of 500 over last year. Of the subjects chosen by the seniors, the Scriptures and Shakspere are still taken by the majority. There is an increase in the number taking geography, but in natural science there is a considerable falling off, except in chemistry and electricity. It is interesting to note that, notwithstanding the disturbance of the war, Natal offers 89 preliminary candidates, being exceeded only by Liverpool (with 92) in the 199 centres or places for examination.

The Gordon Memorial College at Khartum is nearly ready to open its doors to the Sudanese youth. For some time the endowment has supported a preparatory school, with more than 150 pupils, at Omdurman, where the bulk of the native population still reside, and one with about 90 pupils at Khartum. A recent English visitor, Mr. H. S. Wellcome, in view of the considerable possibilities for technical education in that region, has presented to the college a bacteriological and analytical laboratory, which will be specially adapted to the requirements of the population and fitted with every modern appliance. It is also proposed to put a museum of Sudan products in the college building.

The preliminary work for the International Congress of the Historical Sciences, appointed to meet in Rome in the spring of 1902, has been practically completed, and the prospects for a successful convention on a grand scale are excellent. King Victor Emanuel III. has accepted the protectorate of the Congress, and has directed that the Government authorities coöperate in the matter with the savants. Prof. Dr. Garriani, Director of the Archives in the Foreign Office, is also the General Secretary of the Congress, and he has sent out the invitations to the foreign academies, institutes, and savants. The Ministry of Public Works grants the participants special rates on the railroads, and the Ministry of Education has promised free admission to all the museums and other collections for four weeks. Hundreds have already accepted the invitation, Germany alone being represented by 117 names, including all her leading historians. The Congress will do its work in sixteen sections, viz.: (1) Classical Archæology; (2) Numismatics; (3) History of Classical and Oriental Antiquities; (4) History of Ancient Literature; (5) History of Ancient Jurisprudence; (6) Diplomatics, Ancient and Modern; (7) History of Mediæval and Modern Literature; (8) History of Ancient and Mediæval Art; (9) History of Laws; (10) History of National Economy and the Social Sciences; (11) History of Philosophy and Pedagogics; (12) History of Religion; (13) History of Geographical Sciences; (14) History of Mathematical and Experimental Sciences; (15) History of Music and Dramatic Art; (16) Methodology of Historiography. The managers of the Congress emphasize the fact that this movement has no connection whatever with the International Congress of Historians having headquarters at The Hague and in Paris.

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The Archæological Congress planned for Athens has now been practically decided upon, King George, on his recent return from abroad, having given final orders to this effect to the Department of Education. Only financial matters remain to be adjusted, and as the Congress will deal largely with problems of international concern, such as the restoration of the Parthenon with the fragments found in such abundance in the Athenian Museum and on the grounds, it is hoped that contributions from abroad will come to the aid of the exhausted Greek Treasury. A preliminary programme has been made, and the exact date for the convention, to which the leading representatives of classical antiquities in Europe and America are to be invited, will be determined in the near future.

—Upon the appearance of the first volume of Mr. Russell Sturgis's valuable 'Dictionary of Architecture' (Macmillan) we made a somewhat lengthy report of the work in general. The publication of the second volume cannot be allowed to pass without a brief note of its more important features. It covers the alphabet from F to N, a space which includes many articles of the highest interest. Perhaps the most notable of these is one of great fulness upon the architecture of Italy from the pen of Prof. Arthur L. Frothingham, jr. The same author also contributes an extremely lucid article upon the Memorial Arches of the Romans, in which he approaches the subject in a way as unusual as it is searching. The architecture of France, largely from the hand of the editor; of Germany, by H. W. Brewer; of Japan, by Ralph Adams Cram, who treats his subject *con amore;* and of North Africa, by Alexander Graham, all fall within the present volume and add greatly to its usefulness. In practical matters the volume is not lacking, as it has, for example, articles on structural steelwork and on masonry by Mr. W. R. Hutton, while, in purely decorative affairs, it includes Fresco and Mosaic, by Frederick Crowninshield, and Mural Painting, by Edward H. Blashfield. The great number of minor articles, upon the most varied subjects, contributed by the editor, are fresh evidence of his remarkable versatility and of his firm grasp on all that he undertakes. The third and final volume of the work is expected during the autumn.

—'American Diplomatic Questions' (Macmillan) is the title of an octavo volume of 529 pages by John B. Henderson, jr. The author deals with the Fur Seals question, the Interoceanic Canal problem, the Samoan imbroglio and its solution, the Monroe Doctrine, and the Northwest Fisheries. The greater part of the book is historical, and will be found to contain much information not otherwise easily accessible; for the general reader the author's conclusions would be of great interest, but here we are rather baffled by Mr. Henderson's impartiality. He prefers to put before the reader a picture of the discussion as it stands, with the arguments, pro and con, and leave him to find the way out. But, if we are not mistaken, the weight of the argument as to the Canal question is allowed to develop itself by giving the upholders of a neutral canal the "close" in the debate. At any rate, this is his concluding paragraph, admirably put: "With the neutrality of the canal guaranteed by international agreement between the great maritime Powers, there would be no need of fortifications, because, in the face of so powerful a combination, none would dare to violate the freedom of the route. American armies would not be needed to defend its banks; American ships would not be called upon to raise a blockade or disperse a threatening squadron. The United States would escape the many pitfalls of foreign entanglements which the selfish policy of sole political control must inevitably place in her path; and thus—the advocates of neutralization maintain—by the adoption of a more liberal policy in Central America, an 'inexhaustible source of international conflict' would be avoided."

—"Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature," by Prof. George Brandes, has long enjoyed an honorable repute among scholars qualified to judge it in the vernacular. It is, therefore, with pleasure that we welcome an authoritative version in English (The Macmillan Co.). Of the six projected volumes, the first, which is now in hand, has as its subject 'The Emigrant Literature.' It is not important to revive here the discussion of the many interesting and troublous questions of which Professor Brandes treats. In this, as in all his work, the reader nurtured upon the best English criticism may sometimes feel the lack of fineness of scholarship, of perfect delicacy of taste, a defect in poise. But all this amounts to saying that he is not persistently devoted to the furtherance of the dry light of letters. He has the advantage of multifarious learning, the virtues of catholicity and geniality, and his writing is always pregnant with meaning. It may be well to remind the reader that, in Professor Brandes's classification, 'The Emigrant Literature' comprises the work of Chateaubriand, Sénancour, Nodier, Constant, and Barante; all grouped about the historic personality of the amiable Madame de Staël. The stormy and stressful writing of this group, perturbed by the impact of romantic ideas upon the rationalism of the previous age, constitutes in his discussion "the prologue to the great literary drama of the century." It is interesting to note that, like all Continental critics, Brandes is disposed to regard the romantic and revolutionary turmoil in the early years of the nineteenth century as the true golden age of literary history, whereas the more conservative English mind seems more and more to consider it as a very significant but still distinctly subsidiary eddy in the general course of letters. The work of translation has been ably done; this, coupled with the romantic field of the book, and Professor Brandes's rather exceptional skill at retelling a story, render the volume one which should tend to the pleasure of the general reader as well as to his edification; while the peculiarities in the point of view of the study make it of extraordinary interest to the reflective student.

—Dr. A. von der Leyen, a well-known authority on railroad affairs, discusses in the June *Rundschau* the results of "Ten Years of State Railway Management in Prussia." The Prussian State railway system comprises at present more than 30,000 kilometres of track, and represents an investment of 8,000 million marks; its annual budget amounts to nearly 1,500 million marks, and the officials and laborers in its employ number not far from 350,000. That such a gigantic concern, by far the largest in existence, could be successfully managed by one central administration, was not thought possible a quarter of a century ago. It appears that twenty-one years ago scarcely one-half of the Prussian railroads were under Government control, while to-day less than one-tenth remain in private hands. The change was nearly effected ten years ago, and a few figures will show the increase of business during the decade 1889-99. Number of passengers, increase 135 per cent.; distance travelled over by passenger trains, 59 per cent.; passenger kilometres, 94 per cent.; receipts from passenger traffic, 70 per cent.—the discrepancy being due to reduction in fares; freight, ton-kilometres, 63 per cent.; receipts for freight, 52 per cent.—reduction in rates representing a saving to shippers of 60 million marks during the period; number of coal cars furnished in the Rhenish-Westphalian district, 60 per cent.; increase of employees of all classes, 32 per cent.; increase in salaries and wages, 72 per cent. One hundred and forty-three million marks were expended on fourteen of the larger new station buildings; and the annual average for improvements of the roads, for new rolling-stock, etc., is 73½ million marks. The rate of interest on the invested capital rose from 6.26 per cent. in 1889 to 7.28 per cent. in 1899, and the excess of receipts over expenditures from 1882 to 1900 amounted to 6,083 million marks.

—'Von Quarto zum Volturno' (Berlin: Alexander Duncker) is a faithful translation from Italian into German of Cesare Abba's diary kept during the eventful months from May to November, 1860, of Garibaldi's expedition with his thousand volunteers to free the two Sicilies from the yoke of the Bourbon. Abba had already fought for Italian independence in 1859; and as the unity of Italy was his ideal, he joined the legendary hero at Quarto just in time to win the glorious title of "One of the Thousand." Signora Sofia Guerrieri Gonzaga, whose paternal forbears are famous in the annals of Mantua, and whose names figure honorably in the modern history of Italian independence, has chosen wisely this simple narration of the hourly and daily actions of the heroic youths who followed in the footsteps of the martyrs, the brothers Bandiera, those "hearts devoted unto death," of Pisacane and his noble companions "who died that Italy might live," whom Garibaldi in his hour of triumph acclaimed as the "true pioneers." Most of the so-called histories of the *Mille* are one-sided narratives, the writers being fierce partisans of Cavour or of Mazzini, of Victor Emanuel or of Garibaldi. Abba does not concern himself with politics; neither does he write to exalt this or that politician or general, still less to put himself forward as a hero or chief actor in the great drama. A modest student, he returned to his studies at the University, then reappeared in the Tyrol, and fought splendidly the last battle of the volunteers at Bezzecca, where it was touch and go for the Austrians, whose general declared himself beaten. But for the order to abandon the blood-stained and hard-won heights where the Italians left over two thousand dead and wounded, the Italian Tyrol would not now be separated from the mother country. We yet hope to see a memoir of Benedetto Cairoli and of Gabriele Rosa from Abba's pen, and he may think himself fortunate in finding a translator who

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writes with equal fluency her paternal and maternal tongues.

—In view of the work which it has undertaken and is doing, the Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft deserves to be more widely known. The organization is five years old, and has now a membership of about one hundred. Its headquarters are Berlin (Wolf-Peiser *Verlag*). The annual subscription price is 10 marks ($2.50). How, out of this sum, the Society contrives to publish its numerous *Mitteilungen* is a mystery. For the year 1900 five appeared, averaging 40 pages or thereabouts, and illustrated with numerous plates and facsimile reproductions of inscriptions. The first number, by Prof. Max Müller of Philadelphia, dealt with the original home of the Philistines, correcting in some points his well-known book 'Asien und Europa.' He believes that the Philistines came for the most part from the southern shores of Asia Minor, from western Cilicia westward, although some, the Cherethites of the Bible, may have come from Crete. Caphtor he believes to have been a term equivalent to "the far west," including the Asia Minor coast lands and the Ægæan Islands. He is inclined to think that the Philistines were Indo-Europeans, at least in the main. In the same number he published a translation of "The Papyrus Golenischeff," and, largely on the basis of this document, reached the conclusion that the Philistine invasion of Syria and Palestine took place as early as the latter half of the thirteenth century B. C. The second of these *Mitteilungen*, by Dr. Peiser, under the title "Studien zur Orientalischen Altertumskunde," presented a new theory of the Babylonian origin of the Semitic alphabet, in opposition to that set forth by Friedrich Delitzsch a few years since. In the fourth and fifth numbers L. Messerschmidt commenced the important and desirable work of collecting all the so-called Hittite inscriptions, now scattered through all sorts of publications, under the title "Corpus Inscriptionum Hettiticarum." Forty-five plates, containing more than as many inscriptions, are published, with a descriptive text giving such information as exists with regard to the place where each inscription was found, on what material written, present resting-place, former publication, etc. In addition to these official publications, the Society commenced last year the issue of "popular presentations" (*Gemeinverständliche Darstellungen*), to be sold at low prices (15 cents apiece, or two marks a year), for the purpose of arousing and informing public interest with regard to the Orient. This series is entitled "Der Alte Orient."

—The last number of the *Mitteilungen*, by Otto Weber, just published, deals especially with the question of the age of the South Arabian Minæan kingdom. In general he agrees with Glaser and Hommel as to the antiquity of the inscriptions. He endeavors to prove that the Minæan kingdom antedated the kingdom of the Sabæans, reaching its highest point of prosperity about 1000 B. C. At this time the Minæans had the commerce of Southern Arabia in their hands, while by means of a colony in the northern part of Arabia, Musri, frequently confounded in the Bible with Egypt, they were in close commercial intercourse with Mesopotamia, Egypt, Edom, and the Mediterranean countries. The Minæan inscriptions carry us back, he believes, at least as far as 1200 B. C., and, of course, the Minæan alphabet was developed much earlier. The Minæan kingdom lasted until about 600 B. C., when it was overthrown by the Sabæans. Almost by the same mail we received the second part of the first volume of Lidzbarski's 'Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphik,' which deals with the same subject from another standpoint, that of epigraphy. Lidzbarski discusses the relations of the south Arabian script to the north Semitic script, as found in the Phœnician, Moabite, and similar inscriptions. In opposition to Hommel, who supposed the Minæan script to have been the parent of the Phœnician, Lidzbarski reaches the conclusion that the south Arabian script was derived directly from the north Semitic or Phœnician. Now, that the latter was not in existence in 1400 B. C., is shown pretty clearly by the Tel el-Amarna tablets. It meets us fully developed possibly as early as 1000 B. C., and was probably developed somewhere between that date and 1200 B. C. in Phœnicia or the neighboring regions. From there it was carried at about the same time to Greece and Arabia. Allowing time for the very considerable development shown in the oldest of the south Arabian inscriptions yet discovered, Lidzbarski concludes that they cannot antedate 800 B. C., thus supporting the view generally entertained of the date of the Minæan-Sabæan civilization, in opposition to Glaser, Hommel, and Weber. Some space is given to the pottery with royal markings found by Dr. Bliss at Zakaria, Safi, and Judeideh, in Palestine. Lidzbarski argues very effectively that these markings must be pre-exilic. Incidentally he discusses the forms of the letters of the famous Siloah inscription from Jerusalem, and on epigraphical grounds concludes that this inscription is very ancient, as was at first supposed, and not of the Herodian period, as has recently been claimed.

LANDOR'S CHINA AND THE ALLIES.

China and the Allies. By A. Henry Savage-Landor. 2 vols., illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons.

At last, in a brace of octavos weighing nearly eight pounds, we have Mr. Landor's story of the Boxer uprising and the battle summer of 1900 in China. In yellow bindings, stamped with black letters and the symbol of the Boxer brotherhood clenched and supported by the five-clawed imperial dragon, it fills over 800 pages. The end papers between cover and frontispiece are facsimile reproductions from a Chinese army drill-book. It is the story of a lucky and a plucky war correspondent, who, in the nick of time, was on the field with pen and camera, seeing much of the fighting at Tientsin and around Peking, and whose brief preface is as follows: "The aim of this book has been to give a record of events as they occurred and to avoid national or personal prejudices."

Having read the book through, we must acknowledge that Mr. Landor has fairly succeeded. Perfection could hardly be expected. Naturally the man who was tortured by Buddhist priests, and, even worse, was baffled in his quest and purpose to enter their sacred capital in Tibet, charges the blame for the Boxer uprising upon these gentry of the yellow robe. Indeed, he confesses to having gratified his personal feelings so far as to offer personal violence to a peaceful Buddhist priest, "shaking him by the neck" and sending "him sprawling into the middle of the courtyard." After this, one can scarcely avoid thinking that some quite human prejudice may yet disturb his vision. His strictures upon the British Minister, Sir Claude MacDonald, have the flavor of a personal grievance, and one feels all the way through, as his severe condemnations of Gen. Chaffee are freely and repeatedly expressed, that the true inwardness of his relations with this officer is not revealed. Standing out with the clearness of a lighthouse, amid much that is as dark and as puzzling as are the features of an unknown shore in twilight, is the action of the American Admiral. After reading this fresh confirmation of the wisdom and righteousness of Admiral Kempff's refusal to attack the Taku forts, before the Chinese Government was known to have committed a warlike act, we wonder why the American people do not give him an ovation.

Mr. Landor's literary style is simple, clear, and straightforward. He gives in several chapters a careful account of the Boxer movements, both hidden and phenomenal, showing how absurdly blinded were the diplomatists in Peking, even when the missionaries at the outposts and among the people kept repeating their warnings. Historically, the case suggests Braddock and the American militia. Mr. Landor's wit and sarcasm do not fail him in showing much British and American stupidity in high places. The story of the events in Peking, down to the investment of the legation by the Boxers and the attack on Tientsin, is told with fulness and in the vivid style of one who has actually seen much, and has been very near to most, of what took place. The author's personal courage seems undoubted. One can see in the photographs themselves, taken on the battle-field, the results of the concussion of the air and the shaking of the ground made by the discharges of cannon. Blurred and indistinct, as many of these pictures are, they are tremendously suggestive.

Beside the most realistic pictures of carnage, even to the feasting of the dogs upon human flesh, Mr. Landor reproduces the documents found in the yamen at Tientsin showing the secret support given by the Government to the Boxers. Some of the papers had drops of candle grease on them, suggesting that the transactions of rewarding Boxer ruffians and assassins took place at night. Only the day before the city of Tientsin was captured, the viceroy's day-book proved that a sum of ten thousand taels was paid to the head Boxer, Cheng. In one case the female Boxer Society had presented the head of a foreigner, for which the viceroy had handed over fifty taels. The chapters describing the capture, destruction, and looting of Tientsin close with a description of the famous book-store from which, in 1898, during the period of reform, the Emperor had ordered 140 scientific and religious books. During the brief dominance of the Reform party, 47,000 such books had been sold in one year in the four northern provinces. Fourteen of the staff of sixteen of Mr. Gammon's book and Bible distributors were slaughtered in the Boxer uprising. Besides the historical Bible store, Mr. Gammon had "an historical wife," who, when a child in 1870, escaped from the massacre at Tientsin, and in 1890 from the bombardment of the same city. When the reports of this

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American gentleman's helpers were given at his country's legation, they were received with patronizing hilarity, as not being officially gathered by the employees of the legation.

Between his narrative of Tientsin and that descriptive of the advance of the allies on Peking, the author interjects a description of his journey, in 1891, to the quaint monastery of La Trappe in the interior of China. He shows hearty appreciation of the scenery, and describes the great wall, which is largely a tumble-down structure. He gives, with almost superabundance of vivid details, a moving account of the march of the allies to the rescue of Peking. He was with the composite army, often taking photographs under fire. His description of the battle of Pei-tsang, in which the Japanese bore the brunt of the fighting, is wonderfully realistic. Besides the artistic temperament, which makes the author sensitive to many insignificant matters that lend charm and color to his narrative, he is highly appreciative of humor, and many of his pages sparkle with amusing incidents. He chuckles over the American Consul's July telegram to Minister Conger, which, besides advising the advance of troops, reported the results of the political nominating conventions in America. This keen sense of humor helped the author over many difficulties and dangers.

Volume second begins a day-by-day narrative of the siege in Peking. The author derived his information from many sources, chiefly eye-witnesses, and was able to check his information. It appears that the civilians and diplomatists had become utterly hardened to threats and rumors, probably thinking that they would end as had the same vain breath of the foreign-haters and alien-expellers in the Japan of the early seventies; but, after the dinner-ball on Queen Victoria's birthday at the British legation, the danger seemed to be but a stone's throw off, for news came of the attack on the European railway employees at Feng-Tai. Then it was that the Frenchman Chamot and his brave American wife, at the head of a small party of foreigners, forced their way for miles through a menacing mob, freed the Europeans, and conveyed the twenty-seven men, women, and children to Peking. The Boxers immediately, on their retreat, set fire to everything Western and combustible. One engine, with steam up, on being tampered with, started at full speed down the line with a load of Boxers on it, who, at the end of the rails, were dumped with the engine down a steep embankment.

Resisting all temptations to quote striking passages, we can only say that the full, thorough, and for the most part unprejudiced account of the siege, first by the Boxers, and then by the imperial army—let loose immediately on the declaration and act of the allies in making war on China by attacking the Taku forts—is worthy of all praise. It is followed by an ample narrative, critical, as well as descriptive in mass and detail, of the behavior in war, in battle, and camp, on the march, and in all circumstances, of the various nationalities that made up the rescuing force. Mr. Landor only confirms the judgment of other writers in declaring that, of all the troops, the Japanese were the best equipped for the particular work in hand. While he praises the American soldier, officer, and private, as individually the best of all fighting machines, he seems to demonstrate that, in practical hygiene, and in the care and selection of camps, the higher officers of our army are decidedly lacking in either will or judgment, while the waste of life and health in the American service, as compared with the Japanese, for example, to speak of none others, is disgraceful. He does not think that khaki has the advantages of whole or partial invisibility claimed for it, and thinks that white clothing makes men more sensible in seeking reasonable cover. His respect for the Russian soldier is very great. Nevertheless, it does seem that, in dealing out his various judgments, Mr. Landor is sometimes too nicely expert in balancing, as though keeping an eye on the probability of his books being translated and copyrighted in other than English-speaking countries.

In discussing the subject of loot Mr. Landor is clear, calm, and philosophical, showing especially how national traits reveal themselves even in the manner and purpose of plunderers. With more intimate knowledge of Chinese civilization, the Japanese officers know just where to go to get the stores of rice and silver, while even the common soldiers dallied in artistic delight and appreciation over what less susceptible looters from "civilization" smashed at once. That part of the book which will be perhaps most interesting, because covering less trodden ground, contains a full account of Pe-Tang, or the northern part of Peking, where stands what is left of the new French cathedral. Its defence was contemporaneous with that of the legations, on which the chief interest of the world was and has been centred. The Chinese appear to have employed against the Roman Catholics not only the usual fire-arms and methods of assault, but also the terrible rocket, in the manufacture and discharge of which they showed special abilities, and which seems to have been most destructive in effect. Several chapters are given to the recent history of China. Those in conclusion treat of the occupation of Peking by the allied army, and more particularly the formal entrance into the Forbidden City.

EAST INDIA COMPANY LETTERS.

Letters Received by the East India Company from its Servants in the East. Vols. I.-IV. 1602-1616. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1896-1900.

The Embassy of Sir Thomas Roe to the Court of the Great Mogul, 1615-1619, as Narrated in his Journal and Correspondence. Edited by William Foster. London: The Hakluyt Society. 1899.

The Hakluyt Society recently finished its first series of one hundred volumes, and bravely began a second with the issue in two parts of Sir Thomas Roe's Journal. More formidable still in their forecast of ultimate dimensions, the letters received by the East India Company from its servants in the East are now appearing with regularity. The editorial speed is not high, for if we reckon from 1893, when the late Mr. Quaritch published 'The First Letter-Book of the East India Company,' the volumes have been issued at the rate of less than one a year. The series which we now notice began in 1896 as a continuation of the work just mentioned, and took for its general title "East India Company's Records, Vol. I." So far the "records" have been restricted to correspondence, though we may assume that other documents will be given at a later stage. The undertaking has the official support of the India Office, and unusual care is taken to secure a faithful copy of each manuscript. With an accumulation of four volumes at hand we may call the enterprise well started. How far it will extend or how long a time the task of publication will occupy, we can only conjecture. The letters for 1615 fill one large volume, and those for 1616 fill another still larger. We therefore infer that, should all the correspondence between 1602 and the days of Clive (when business broadened out into politics) be published, the next century will possess a stupendous mass of information about "John Company," its methods, and its results.

It is often stated by those who make no pretence of admiring England, that she has sent her traders with their cargoes of rum and her missionaries with their Bibles into valuable parts of the earth as advance agents. A little later along comes the Government and annexes a new province upon some plea of damage to its subjects or other like subterfuge. This theory derives no color whatever from the early annals of the East India Company. If any race grasped the idea of securing wealth from the Far East by means of political pressure, it was the Dutch. The natives of the Spice Isles were made to feel very soon after the Hollanders came that the open door between them and the rest of the world was closed by artificial means. Until Dupleix's success in the Carnatic showed what political management could do, the East India Company kept pretty strictly to commerce. One great exception is furnished by Sir Josiah Child's ill-fated design of coercing the native states in 1684, long after the period with which we are now dealing.

The Scotch have the name of being cautious, yet, when they undertook the commercial and colonial adventure of Darien, they embarked on the largest scale and lost everything at a single blow. The London merchants were much more canny than that when they began the India trade. Taking the year 1601, when Lancaster sailed forth on the Company's first voyage, we need not compare the English with the Spaniards, whose fleet had been so badly damaged during the decade 1588-1598, nor, on the contrary, with the Portuguese, whose long dealings in the East enabled them to employ a large number of ships with a sense of confidence. But if we compare them with the Dutch, a nation like themselves new to the Malabar Coast and the Malay Straits, we shall see that the English were decidedly outnumbered. Thus they lost their chance of dividing the pepper trade and the still more profitable traffic in cloves, nutmegs, and mace. Each of the first twelve voyages was a separate venture, supported by a special subscription and concluded after the inward cargo had been sold. A systematic policy was rendered impossible by this arrangement, and, as an example of the anomalies which it caused, a single case may be cited. Sir Henry Middleton was placed in charge of the sixth voyage, and Capt. John Saris of the eighth. Owing to a series of misadventures Middleton was detained longer than usual on his way out, and Saris overtook him. Friction then arose between the two officers over the division of trade and profits, as both fleets would be trading in the same waters at the same time. After

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some debate, it was agreed that two-thirds of the goods procured by trade should go to the credit of the sixth voyage, and one-third to that of the eighth. But fresh trouble began at Mocha (May, 1612), and Saris sailed out of the Red Sea "without paying the usual courtesies to Sir Henry Middleton."

We need not enter into the details of the Company's organization at the start. It was very primitive and admitted of no political designs. Even after the different interests had been consolidated, it took many years for a persistent, corporate spirit to make itself felt. Mr. W. H. Woodward, indeed, in his excellent book, 'The Expansion of the British Empire' (1899), says of the East India Company, p. 72:

"The records of its earliest years show the extreme care which was bestowed upon its ventures both at home and afloat. The steps taken to raise capital, to secure freedom of action from the Crown, to maintain the corporate nature of its trade, to select, to fit out, and arm vessels suitable for an adventurous traffic, to appoint captains, masters, and factors of skill and integrity, to prepare letters and presents to native princes—indeed, all points of business detail indicate the keen practical judgment which was at that time characteristic of the English and Dutch, as contrasted with their rivals in France, Spain, and Portugal."

We find much evidence in these four volumes of letters which would lead us to qualify this statement. The Company, we admit, made great efforts, especially after the renewal of its charter in 1609, when it built the largest English merchant ship of the day, the *Trades Increase*. But often it appears niggardly and penny-wise. Thus, a splendid sailor, Nicholas Downton, who brought the *Peppercorn* through her terrible homeward voyage of 1613, writes:

"Out of my desire of the prosperity of your business I could wish that both sails, ropes, and cables for your ships this way were proportioned and appointed by some one that understands the voyages, rather than by such, though otherwise very honest, whose experience enables them no further than in home short journeys, for they are subject to many things which cannot be foretold, as in case by the suddenness of a gust of wind, by the disability of men's strength, part or most of one's sails should be blown away."

And a greater man still, Sir Thomas Roe, criticises unsparingly the presents which have been placed in his hands for the Great Mogul and his courtiers:

"The Presentes you have this yeare sent are extreamly despised by those who have seene them; the lyning of the Coach and Cover of the Virginalls scorned, beeing velvett of these parts and faded to a base Tawny; the Knives little and meane, soe that I am enforced to new furnish the Case of my owne store; . . . the burning glasses and prospectives such as no man hath face to offer to give, much less to sell, such as I can buy for six peence a peice; your Pictures not all worth one Penny, and finally such error in the chooyce of all things, as I thincke no man ever heard of the Place that was of Councell. Here are nothing esteemed but of the best sorts: good cloth and fine, and rich Pictures, they comming out of Italy overland and from Ormus; soe that they laugh at us for such as wee bring."

The captains and traders who represented the Company were doubtless selected with more care than the presents, and some of them showed much talent. It was an enormous risk to place one man in supreme authority at a distance of twelve or eighteen months' journey from home, but the danger of trusting the head of the expedition proved less than that of checking and thwarting him by a system of espionage. Though certain individuals were a disappointment, the English merchants succeeded in awakening a genuine loyalty among their agents which Spanish and Portuguese methods could not arouse. Apart from Sir Thomas Roe (a political envoy more than a commercial traveller), we meet with no man of genius between the establishment of the Company and 1616. But a large number could be named of those who did their duty well and worked hard to double or quadruple their five talents. This class includes James Lancaster and Nicholas Downton, among the ship captains; Thomas Aldworth, the first English agent in Western India, and Thomas Kerridge, among the factors and negotiators ashore. The worst error made in the early years of the venture was the appointment of Richard Cocks to the control of the Japanese business at Firando. Sir E. Maunde Thompson has already edited his Diary for the Hakluyt Society, and it is abundantly proved that he was the wrong man for an important post at a critical moment. "Easy-going and unpractical, he was a singularly inefficient head for a factory where the strenuous competition of the Dutch and many other difficulties had to be encountered." On the whole, however, the really inferior agents seem few.

Where the profits of a good voyage amounted to 234 per cent., the competition was naturally severe—not so much between rival companies of the same nation as between different nationalities. On this continent the Hudson's Bay Company was for a while in wholesome dread of the Northwest Company, but Sir Thomas Smith and his associates trading to the East found their worst obstacle in the hostility of the Dutch and Portuguese. Concerning the latter little need be said, for their power had culminated before the English appeared on the scene. They caused some trouble at Surat by threats and diplomacy, but, after Downton's victory in Swally Roads, 1614, they did little to retard English progress in the dominions of the Mogul or elsewhere. With the Dutch the case was quite otherwise. They came to the Malay Archipelago in strong force, and possessed of the valuable idea that the natives might be compelled to guarantee them a monopoly of trade. Despite the political troubles at home which sprang from the Arminian controversy, the jealousy between Holland and the other provinces, etc., Dutch traders chose their zone of influence cleverly, and (if we can overlook their treatment of the natives) showed positive genius in keeping it to themselves. The islands of the Molucca group would have welcomed competition and a larger market, but they could not secure these advantages alone, and the English did not give them effective help. The East India Company was simply following the line of least resistance when it took to the Malabar Coast. The massacre of the English merchants at Amboyna, which established Dutch supremacy in the Spice Isles, did not occur till 1623, and so has no part in our survey. It is seldom that a Power driven as England was from the Archipelago finds such ample indemnity in other quarters. Holland won the extremely profitable Spice Islands, England won the Indian Empire.

The letters published in these volumes are not official dispatches alone. Many of them are private letters (how very private may be judged from Nos. 149 and 155A), and one is surprised that they should have found their way to the Company's archives. Even the official reports are full of life and color, deriving strength in every sentence from the rich Elizabethan speech which is the common possession of the Bible and Hakluyt's 'Principal Navigations.' The mixture of slightly archaic English with the names of Eastern islands and the Hobson-Jobson of Oriental words which are becoming a kind of sailor's slang, gives mellow tones to the most practical business report. The letters embrace all kinds of trading interest along the littoral, and disclose the nature of trading methods. Where there is friction between English and natives or between the Company's servants themselves, it comes to the surface. The style is very free, and what was written has not been mangled by insincere editing. Each document is given verbatim.

We have placed a second title at the head of our paper for two reasons. 'Sir Thomas Roe's Embassy' has been recently edited for the first time in ungarbled form by the same scholar, Mr. William Foster, who edits three volumes of the correspondence. Moreover, it runs parallel with many letters from Roe and others which are printed in the correspondence. We wish that we could write at large upon Roe's mission to the court of Jahangir, what he saw there and what he did. This journal of an expedition to the Hinterland, with its vivid description of Mogul society and its portrait of Roe himself—a splendid envoy if ever there was one—deserves its place at the head of the Hakluyt Society's new series. We can only point to the uncommon interest of Roe's career, and of the record which he left concerning English operations at Surat and thereabouts.

TEN YEARS IN COSSACK SLAVERY.

Ten Years in Cossack Slavery, or Black Russia. By Julian Jasiencyk. Translated by Marie de Mankowski. New York: The Abbey Press. 1901.

Rightly judged, this book should take a high rank among the Problem Novels—unless the observant reader should prefer to consign it to the category of practical jokes. The problem (joke) begins on the cover and frontispiece, which are adorned with the name and portrait of the translator instead of the author. The title-page is problem-joke number three, after which the comic mystery thickens so fast and furiously that we must decline to keep tally of the successful efforts in both lines. We must disabuse the reader's mind of any commonplace ideas which he may heretofore have entertained as to ethnographical or geographical distinctions. The title-page does not refer to any one of the famous bodies of Cossacks; neither does "Black Russia" constitute a well-defined section of the country, either as to race or situation, like White Russia, Little Russia, or Red Russia. Both words are used in the sense of imprecations of the most violent order—being Polish—and signify, respectively, merely Russians and their land in general, though in a few passages of the book itself the intention is to allude to the specifically registered bodies of Cossacks in the Russian sense. Precisely what the coroneted cat-o'-ten-

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tails on the cover may mean, it is difficult even to conjecture, unless it be regarded in the light of a pictorial "scare-head" allurement to the mythical horrors within the covers. It is not a Cossack *nagaïka*, nor yet the official *plet;* and by what right it arrogates to itself the "nobility crown" it is difficult to divine, as it was not used upon the person who appears as author, either nobly or otherwise, or on other individuals in the queerly composed volume. But before we reach the main line, we are side-tracked again by a "Biographical Note," wherein the publishers—most unfortunately for the reputation of our vaunted public-school system—explain that the translator, born of Polish parents in Houston, Texas, and educated in the public schools there and in San José, California, is "fond of Polish literature," and, after reading this book, "was so enraptured with it; and with its many objects, that she undertook to translate it into English, for the benefit of other nations, in order to make them acquainted with Polish literature." No more deadly blow could have been aimed either at Polish literature or at the English language than this. But of the latter hereafter.

The book professes to be the diary of a Pole who was arrested in Warsaw in the year 1846 for some sort of plotting, in which his friends have also been implicated. Just how far to blame this Julian Jasiencyk and his imprisoned comrades were, he never informs us; though when, at last, after several months of confinement, the list of his iniquities is read to him by the authorities, he admits (to his Diary) that about one-tenth of the accusations were true. That the prisoners underwent hardships is, no doubt, quite true; it is not the object of any Government to render prisons palaces of pleasure. But it is difficult to reconcile the record of these severities with the liberties hinted at when convenient; and, in any case, the "persecuted" Pole should have been grateful for his opportunities to indulge in coarse violence of language. After a time, several prisoners, including Jasiencyk, are assigned to military battalions, at Orenburg and elsewhere, and the intermittent account of the journey thither is far from clear in many places, though everything which can be scored up against the "Cossacks" (meaning ordinary Russian soldiers) is carefully set down, while the indulgences are passed over lightly. This point is worth noticing because of what follows.

When Orenburg is reached, the story becomes more incoherent than ever. Instead of narrating the details of the "Cossack slavery," Jasiencyk spends thirty-seven pages—one-sixth of the whole—in an historical account of Russian campaigns in "Chiiwy" (Khiva), "Buckary" (Bukhara), and Kokand, between 1839 and 1853. Possibly, this is done in order to laud a Polish captain concerned in the Kokand campaign, with references to other Poles, as the writer does not seem to have taken part in any military operations himself. Just how, in the course of this hated "slavery," he became an officer, travelled to St. Petersburg (which seems to be an error, as no object is alleged), to the central governments and so forth, on Government business, playing the great man, journeying in style, and the like, he does not allow the reader to guess. One can but perceive that he fared better, reached a higher rank, in "slavery" than he would have done had he remained in Warsaw, in all probability; and the object of telling either side of the story, under the circumstances, is a puzzle, since each in the very nature of things casts doubt upon the other or upon the man's inconsequence of mind and conduct. It will be seen that the choice of this rambling, incoherent effort as a representative work of Polish literature, as one over which any one accustomed to real literature could grow enthusiastic or offer to the cultivated nations of the world in translation, is a serious blunder. There are vivid passages, it is true; but the style is abrupt, art is entirely lacking, and the interesting portions are so few and brief that they do not make up for absolute absence of literary quality.

As translation the work certainly merits the booby prize; as a specimen of English it can hardly be surpassed, and the same may be said of the amazing unintelligence as to geography and other matters of ordinary knowledge. Here are a few quotations: "During that time the head of a policeman was in the door, which seemed as if it was truncated, who watched every movement of the dumb servant." On page 34 we read: "Rap; they will give you a teapot, put that grass in it, the soldier will pour some boiling water on it, and afterwards drink it." The steeped "grass" (meaning herb) must have been very refreshing to the prisoner. In several places, untranslated Polish words and expressions are used, probably because the translator did not know their meaning. One such case (p. 92) is the following: "Those are the Candalyszke, who are going to hard labor . . ."; and a few sentences further on: "Then Candalyszk approached the balcony and scattered his clothes. The Colonel examined to see if his chains were locked good. . . ." Precisely what the man did with his clothing we leave to the reader's imagination; but the mention of the chains should have suggested to Mme. de Mankowski that "candalyszk" was not a surname; and that, in short, it simply meant "the fettered men . . . the fettered man." All the names of places and persons are spelled in Polish fashion, which often renders them almost unrecognizable to the public at large; *Volodzimir* for Vladimir and *Nyninovgorod* for Nizhni-Novgorod are specimens; also *Mount Wrobel* for the Vorobei or Sparrow Hills, on the outskirts of Moscow. Another instance is: "For whom are those genuflections? Are they for the Greek Church or for Kremel?" Kremel is not a surname, but the Kremlin (*Kreml*, Russian) at Moscow. "Fate placed upon our road one more noble person and that was our ordinator," meaning orderly. On p. 120 we find a gem: "Quite often a footman in gold livery carries a golden tray with eggs filled preceded by an armorial lady." Page 146 contains an interesting bit of history and matter for the statisticians of life-insurance companies: "There was one station named Maryka, established by Mary Mnischowne, wife of Dmitra, an impostor. It was rumored that she resided there yet." The allusion is to Marya Mnichek, wife of Dmitry, the First Pretender to the throne of Moscow during the Troublous Time, just preceding 1612. Comment is superfluous. Another extraordinary statement occurs on p. 152, in connection with the historical account of the Khiva expeditions already referred to. Gen. Perovsky is making preparations to start from Orenburg for Khiva; and among these preparations, recorded in a single, detached sentence, is this: "A regiment of soldiers was sent to St. Petersburg." That is to say, the clever General strengthened his scanty forces by sending part of them about three thousand miles northwest, instead of a few hundred miles southeast, to the goal! Is geography taught in Texas and California, or is this the result of arbitrary "editing"? Precisely why "clubs" should be used for *rods*, in recording the number of blows decreed for punishment, is a riddle; so is the use of "russet" for *coat*. The genitive case is persistently used in the wrong form, and counterbalanced by employing the same word as a proper noun of person immediately afterwards. "Orenburg's battalion" is a case in point; and on page 217 there is a good instance of the double error: "With the greatest astonishment I observed Jumkrow's Academy students stretched out on the benches smoking cigarettes. In the gloomy Orenburg steppe, Jumkrows were not allowed to be seen walking publicly." The allusion here is, in all probability, to the Yunkers' (cadet) school. In this "gloomy Orenburg steppe" the writer saw something curious: "I turned toward a shady alley, which led to a castle, in which grew lime trees." A little later, we are informed that "*Pan* [the Polish Mr.] served in Caucus"—a very upsetting performance as here recorded, since there is no such thing as a Caucus in Russia. If *Kavkas*, the Caucasus, had been intelligently rendered, the wonder would cease. But is it possible that the translator's dictionary, or her general reading, left her ignorant as to this word, and as to one on a subsequent page—"An archiery came and found a place"—otherwise, an *archierei* or Bishop?

This volume, as to contents and execution, is very far from meriting the space we have devoted to it, except that it furnishes a terrible example for the benefit of our public schools all over the land which contain multitudes of foreigners, who, together with the native Americans, should, first of all, be taught to use decent, intelligible English, and because the honor of Polish literature requires some defence after the over-ambitious prefatory note.

The History of Medicine in the United States. By Francis Randolph Packard, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901.

The supplementary title, "A Collection of Facts and Documents relating to the History of Medical Science in this Country . . . to the year 1800," is a truer name for the above work. The welding art of the historian has not been exercised, and the preface frankly represents that what is offered is a series of essays and compilations, three of which have already been published in medical periodicals, rather than a continuous historical work.

The original conditions of American medicine were what might be expected. A few men skilled in the medical art of the day accompanied or followed the earlier settlers; but they were very few and some were merely sojourners. Much of such service was in the hands of the matrons whose practical information came from domestic association with the sick, and the more serious

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general cases were treated by the clergy, with whom, as among other primitive or isolated people, the higher learning rested. This was especially so in New England, where, indeed, as with the medical missionaries of to-day, many of the ministers formally studied medicine as well as theology, and had a care for the bodies joined to that for the souls of their parishioners. Is it atavism that still leads the cloth, no longer learned in medicine, to encourage with a faith that in others might be credulity the nostrums of the hour? Two of the earlier Presidents of Harvard (Chauncy, 1654-'71, Hoar, 1672-'5) were graduated and practising physicians, the former a clergyman as well. Gov. Winthrop of Massachusetts did not hesitate to prescribe as with authority from his general knowledge; and his son, Gov. Winthrop of Connecticut, was famous for his medical skill and its exercise. Anne Hutchinson and Anneke Jans, both chiefly remembered for very different reasons, exercised functions in particular aid of their own sex which men did not assume until long afterward.

The successive medical generations, not imported, either were pupils of individual practitioners or acquired independently, to their own and their neighbors' satisfaction, a working knowledge of the art. As the settlements grew older, but had no professional schools, medical students indentured themselves to established practitioners; and, upon the expiration of their apprenticeship, these pupils began practice for themselves with varying standards and acquirements. Those who could afford it crossed the water for wider study and diplomas, but it is reckoned that of thirty-five hundred actually practising when the Revolution began, the academic title did not belong to more than one in nine. Nevertheless, as Morton points out, this small group had much better classical education and was more strengthened and polished by travel than a great majority of the doctors of to-day.

The collective study of medicine commenced slowly. In Philadelphia Dr. Cadwalader gave anatomical lectures to physicians in 1750, and in New York the first dissection for professional study in the colonies was made the same year. The Pennsylvania Hospital, opened in 1752, immediately placed an excellent field for clinical observation at the disposal of its staff and their pupils, and it has continued this valuable public office ever since. There followed next "The Society of the Hospital of the City of New York," chartered in 1771; but, from the obstacles of fire and war and poverty, the institution was not opened for permanent occupation by patients until 1791. The efforts of Drs. Morgan and Shippen, both native Americans and both conspicuous later in the Revolutionary army, graduates in medicine of Edinburgh, led to establishing the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1765. From that mustard-seed has grown a tree of knowledge, or at least of teaching, which in 1900 was represented by 119 medical colleges. Within that year these, exclusive of any of irregular faith or of none, taught nearly 23,000 and graduated 4,700 students. A crop so extensive and quickly grown can hardly be nutritious and full-flavored.

In view of the infrequency with which the medical profession now passes outside its clinical province, except occasionally in letters, the number and importance of those who were really public men in the early days of the republic are remarkable. Five physicians were among the Signers; Wolcott, Irvine, and Mercer were generals, and others were Continental officers of rank; many, like Warren and Brooks, were in the more or less active provincial militia; and numerous legislative and high administrative positions were filled with credit by those whose formal profession was medicine. Excepting for the engrossing nature of his usual pursuit, the cultivated physician, robust in body and alert in mind, should lead his fellow-citizens as well as others who temporarily assume military duties.

The History contains essays upon yellow fever at the North, upon inoculation for smallpox, and upon the Pennsylvania Hospital (which may be taken as the best type of the older charitable institutions); that are interesting as history and valuable as abstracts, and indicate besides where the original memoirs may be found. It contains also general information as to the difficulties that enveloped the medical affairs of the Continental army, which simply prefigured those of every establishment where men not organized by discipline are called soldiers because they are armed. Those who do not insist on learning only by their own experience may understand from what happened in 1777 what will happen in 1977, if the conditions are the same. There stands by itself (pp. 150-'1), extracted from Morton's 'History of the Pennsylvania Hospital,' a narrative of one of those singular dreams of premonition in which the Society of Friends seems peculiarly rich. In view of that body's constant sobriety of speech and honesty of motive, this vision, in anticipation of a tragedy which did occur, is commended for the files of the Society for Psychical Research.

Laudable pains have been taken to name the authorities drawn on in this compilation, but unfortunately the page, and sometimes the volume, is frequently omitted. Where quotations are at first hand it is so easy to facilitate verification and further study by exactness of reference that such omissions are inexcusable. The text opens (p. 11) with an incorrect and incomplete statement that Mr. Pratt was appointed under contract by the Court of Assistants as surgeon for the plantation March 5, 1682. The plantation, which is left for inference, was that granted by the Council of New England to Endicott and others. The date is an obvious error for 1628, but it shows little antiquarian interest in an historian that it should not have attracted attention in the proofs, and especially that the subject's Christian name should not appear. John Pratt seems to have arrived in 1629, settled at Newtown (Cambridge), took part in the Connecticut migration led by Thomas Hooker in 1636, sailed for England by way of Spain on the *Seafort*, John Hawkins, master, in the autumn of 1645, and was one of the few lost in the wreck of that ship near Cales (Cadiz). The erudite Samuel Latham Mitchill (pp. 220-'6) appears, as often happens but should not, as Mitchell. Braintree is "Baintree" (p. 37). There is no warrant for describing Jonathan Dickinson of New Jersey as a physician; and Toner, who is given as authority, does not mention his name. This Dickinson was born in 1688, was graduated at Yale in 1706, studied theology, commenced preaching at Elizabethtown, N. J., 1708, was ordained there in 1709, and retained that charge until his death in 1747. He has possibly been confused with Dr. John Dickinson of Connecticut, who is mentioned by Toner and barely referred to here (p. 239). Such errata, casually observed and not sought for, throw discredit upon the minute accuracy of a book which, speaking generally, is a useful contribution to early medical history.

The World of Graft. By Josiah Flynt. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901. Pp. 221, including a Glossary.

This book is not simply a curious book of travel in a portion of the social under-world, like Mr. Flynt's 'Tramping with Tramps'; it is also a severe arraignment of the police in large cities—perhaps the severest arraignment that they have received. A descriptive sub-title of the book might run—"What the professional thief knows and thinks about municipal corruption." It is a record of a number of conversations with professional thieves "in the open," in circumstances in which there was no reason why a man should falsify or conceal what he knew. Indeed, in the majority of cases the thief supposed himself to be talking freely with a "pal," and in almost all cases he was sure that his confessions would not be used to make trouble for himself or for any other individual.

The point of the arraignment is that the police do not, and as at present selected and organized will not, and indeed cannot, do their duty of suppressing theft, without becoming in some measure sharers in its profits. The police force in great cities consists, in Mr. Flynt's judgment, on the evidence before him, partly of honest men, who with few exceptions possess little of the special knowledge that to men in their position is indispensable, and partly of rogues who make arrests for theft when they are obliged to, and at other times show themselves little better than receivers of stolen goods. A still celebrated ex-member of "Mother Mandelbaum's gang" bears witness that he did business for twenty years as a bank-robber and never got arrested or did a bit of "time"; and that his ultimate arrest was due to the Pinkertons.

"Durin' those twenty years it was the crooked municipal copper that kep' me from gettin' sloughed up, an' I'd be on the turf yet 'f I'd only him to deal with. As a rule, when the city copper ain't a dead one, he's a crooked one, an' neither of 'em ever kep' me awake o' nights, cause the dead one doesn't know anything an' the crooked one forgets everything after you've bribed him."

The way in which he managed in New York city, for example, he says, was this:

"If we made a get-away all right an' knew that the police wasn't on to us, 'course we didn't cough up any coin to 'em; but if there was any trouble about the get-away—if the holler was big—one of us used to go straight to the percentage coppers on the force, tell 'em our tale o' woe, whack up the plunder, an' stop worryin'."

The root of the evil lies in the tolerance of the so-called "mouthpiece system," and in the dishonesty and false economy on which the tolerance of that system sets a premium. The mouthpiece system amounts to nothing less than a detective's making a bargain with a professional thief, to the effect that, in return for certain favors, the thief shall point out to the detective certain men whom it will profit him in repu-

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tation or in money to find. Thieves know the members of their own fraternity, and where they are to be found, and which one of them did what; and can, if they will, relieve the detective of the labor for which he is paid; the favors which they receive in return stretch all the way from a detective's simply permitting them to live undisturbed in a city, so long as they do business elsewhere, shutting his eyes to all information that they are "wanted" for thefts committed in other cities, to his deliberately protecting them in thefts committed in his own city and sharing their plunder. An honest man can learn the faces of the thieving fraternity, their haunts, their distinctive modes of workmanship, only by an immense amount of labor and travel that lie wholly outside of the duties for which at present members of the force are paid; a dishonest man can make a bargain with a thief, take a part of his winnings, and without labor make such arrests from time to time as will benefit him personally. Both by the organization of the force and by the practice of his rivals, the scales are weighted heavily against the honest policeman; and the public pays for what inevitably it will not get. The honest policeman cannot suppress theft because his routine does not permit him to gain the necessary knowledge; and the dishonest policeman at first will not suppress it, and later dare not even if he would.

"As the American police are now managed," it is the deliberate opinion of Mr. Flynt, who, by the way, has been an officer himself, that "the mouthpiece is an unavoidable necessity." It is difficult to conceive how a graver charge could be made against a police management than that it does little towards making honest officers efficient, or towards enabling them to make themselves efficient, and harbors dishonest officers, whose efficiency depends on their being in league with and protecting and sharing with the very men they are employed to arrest. The charge, in a late article by Mr. Flynt in *McClure's Monthly* (here reprinted as a chapter), which made Capt. Titus so indignant—the charge, namely, that there is a man with a well-known criminal record at this time on the detective force under his control—is a bagatelle by comparison. That the police, and the political clubs and organizations which dictate the government of this city and the conduct of the police force, should share the profits of saloons, gambling houses, and houses of prostitution, has excited no small indignation on the part of people other than Capt. Titus; but grave as this offence may be, there is a plain difference between sharing the profits of men who encourage or minister to vices, and sharing the plunder of men who commit crimes. About the ultimate responsibility of political bosses and clubs for this sharing of plunder neither Mr. Flynt nor his informants are in doubt. "I've known Tammany ever since I struck the turf," the ex-thief quoted above says; "I've been protected by it, 'n' helped protect it. . . . As a gun I used to like Tammany. Every organization like that makes a town easier for a gun to live in, an' if I were on the road to-day an' expected to live in York, I'd want Tammany to hold the offices." "The league [between law-breakers and those whose business it is to restrain them] could not exist in New York," Mr. Flynt says in a summary, "without the consent of the ruling political bosses, and the bosses could not remain in power if they refused the under world the chance to live, which means to graft." In regard to the expense for the taxpayer entailed by the league, "It is the universal opinion of all [*sic*] the men I talked with that New York could be managed on an honest basis at least one-third more cheaply than it now is with the league in force."

Le Nouveau Don Juan. Par Marcel Barrière. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre. 1900.

Among recent attempts at the revival of romantic fiction in France, the three volumes comprising the above work do more than any others to justify Matthew Arnold's epigram which places the imaginative writers of that country among the worshippers of "the great goddess Aselgeia." While reading 'L'Éducation d'un Contemporain,' 'Le Roman de l'Ambition,' and 'Les Ruines de l'Amour,' one is irresistibly carried back to the days of Gautier's vogue, to an atmosphere which, in the words of the Duchess in 'The Gay Lord Quex,' may be euphemistically described as consisting chiefly of "warm evenings." It argues a certain temerity on the part of a novelist to seek to adapt the Don-Juanesque legend to the conditions of contemporary French society, to substitute for the picturesque garb of the romantic hero the uniform of a modern cavalry officer, and to overlay the whole story with a comprehensive philosophical purpose to which the various episodes contribute each a share. For the central personage of this trilogy is neither the gay heart-breaker of tradition nor the mere "depraved Cherubino" of Byron's poem; he plays his double rôle of *réussisseur* and *homme à bonnes fortunes* with all the solemn unscrupulousness of Casanova or Bel-Ami, and with unflaggingly wearisome priggishness. The combination is, momentarily, piquant enough, but, when carried through eleven hundred pages, it loses its savor.

Two elaborate prefaces set forth the general design of the whole work, which is to be completed by the addition of a "philosophical trilogy" and the analytical history of the synthetic scheme. The author warns his critics against hasty conclusions, and disclaims any intention of following the lead of either Balzac or Zola, though he remains discreetly silent about D'Annunzio. In its general conception, the "heptalogy" of the French author, however, suggests a very close resemblance to the divisional plan adopted by his Italian compeer, while the motto of "Habere, non haberi" will apply indiscriminately to the principles and practice of the leading characters in both cases. This ethical, as well as structural, affinity, together with the total absence of wit or humor in either writer, enables the critic to dispose summarily of the present work under the convenient rubric of the first ambitious contribution of a French novelist to the loudly heralded "Renaissance Latine." We may note a further correspondence in the too frequent obtrusion of the respective authors' predilections for this or that school of art, as well as in the padding-out of almost every chapter with pages of *bravura* description.

To discuss seriously the philosophical plan of which these volumes form a part would lead at once to *ex-parte* judgment. It is sufficient to say that the avowed purpose of their author is to represent a purely individualistic type, endowed with gifts all but godlike, pursuing his chosen career of a professional lover of women and master of men in the midst of modern conditions; the author meanwhile complacently playing the part of a highly literary Leporello. But, up to the present point, we fail to see now any of the more serious mishaps that befall the votary of pleasure and ambition can be interpreted as the consequences of his conduct, and hence as illustrative of the moral and social principles announced in the preface. The fascinating American woman he meets at Monte Carlo (scented, by the way, with *wintergreen*, "le parfum favori des Américaines"), is whisked away by the brutally monopolizing jealousy of a husband too much attached to his own rights; the magnificent duchess who absorbs Don Juan's exclusive regard for many months is accidentally drowned; and the *cantatrice* who gives up all for his love falls a victim to a mysterious disease. Other unnamed frail ones are "like ships that pass in the night." Various reverses of fortune, chiefly the result of prodigality, are set right in the nick of time through unexpected legacies or by restitution of Russian estates; for it should be added that, apparently out of politic compliment to the Franco-Russian alliance, the modern Don Giovanni is represented as closely connected with the imperial family of the Romanoffs. The whole plot of the story is, indeed, so incoherent that we await with some curiosity the "synthèse" that is to unite its now ravelled threads.

In the concluding paragraphs of his introduction, the author lays some stress on the importance of style as contributory to the worth of a book. Fortunately for his readers, practice in his case keeps pace with precept. If M. Marcel Barrière will but undertake subjects less enslaved to the conventions of one school in French fiction, and work on canvas of less ambitious proportions, the facility and richness of his own style will undoubtedly recommend him to the more favorable notice of future reviewers.

First on the Antarctic Continent: Being an Account of the British Antarctic Expedition, 1898-1900. By C. E. Borchgrevink. London: George Newnes. 1901. 8vo, pp. xvi, 333. Maps and illustrations.

The voyage described in this column is one of the "reportorial" class, and, in the main, was sustained financially by Sir George Newnes, the well-known British publisher. The vessel used was the *Southern Cross*, a bark of 521 tons with auxiliary steam power, drawing eighteen feet of water. A crew of fourteen persons (chiefly Norwegians), two Norwegian Lapps, and fourteen officers, including Mr. Borchgrevink, in charge, comprised the personnel of the expedition. Dr. H. Klövstad, surgeon; Nikolai Hansen, taxidermist; H. B. Evans, assistant zoölogist; Louis Bernacchi and William Colbeck, magnetic and meteorological observers, formed the scientific staff of the party.

The vessel left the Thames on the 22d of August, 1898, touching at Madeira, Adventure Bay, and Hobart, Tasmania, and entered the pack in the vicinity of the Balleny Islands, in January, 1899. After a more or less successful struggle with the ice, the *Southern Cross* dropped anchor off Cape Adare, South Victoria Land, February 17, 1899. Here storehouses and huts were erected, and the wintering party, consisting of the commander, the scientific staff,

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cook, general utility man, and the two Lapps, were landed, with outfit, dogs, and sledges; and March 2, 1899, the vessel departed for Australia. The winter passed without remarkable incident, the party being occupied with the usual observations, short sledge journeys, and collections. On the 14th of October Mr. Hansen died, from causes apparently not connected with the expeditionary work. About the end of January the vessel returned, the camp was dismantled, the party with their records taken aboard. The expedition then proceeded southward along the east coast of Victoria Land and beyond it, along the northern border of the ice-cliffs, until on February 16, 1900, a break in the barrier was discovered. Here a natural harbor had formed, with low shores of ice, and was entered with great precaution. It was situated in west longitude from Greenwich about 164° 10′, and the vessel was able to reach south latitude 78° 34′. Here Borchgrevink landed with a sledge and outfit, and, accompanied by Colbeck and the Lapp, Per Savio, succeeded in reaching about sixteen miles further south over the surface of the ice. No land was discovered in this region, but animal life, penguins, and seals were not infrequent, and the termination of the trip marked the southernmost point yet reached in the Antarctic regions. On February 19 they proceeded; touched at Franklin Island; on the 21st anchored in Port Ross, and on the 30th reached New Zealand.

The experiences of the expedition were less trying than those of the party on the *Belgica*. It doubtless gives comfort to feel that the solid earth is actually under one's feet. Violent gales blew for a large part (more than a quarter) of the time, sometimes reaching ninety miles an hour; but the hut seems to have been comfortable, the party generally increased in weight, and the conditions were endurable. During much of the time animal life was abundant, seals and penguins abounded, and fish, of several species and reasonable size, were secured not only for the collection but in sufficient plenty to supply the larder. No predacious animals existing round about, the supplies of food required no protection except from the weather.

The mean temperature for the year was 7.05 degrees F. The extreme minimum, on August 4, was 43.1 degrees below zero. The maximum temperature at Cape Adare was 48.9 degrees F., on the 23d of January, 1899. The sun was invisible May 15 to July 29, and was above the horizon continuously from November 16 to January 26. The best weather was during the month of November. The frequency and force of the gales, the persistency with which they blew from one direction, E. S. E., with an invariable marked rise of temperature; the sudden changes of the barometer; the dryness of the winds; and the motion of the upper clouds from the northwest, according to Bernacchi indicate that the South Pole is covered by what may be regarded as practically a great permanent anticyclone, more extensive in the winter months than in the summer. Nothing can be imagined more appalling than the gales, which, carrying tons of dry drifting snow, blew at Cape Adare for ninety-two days with a velocity of more than forty miles an hour, and on several occasions over ninety miles an hour. The precipitation was trifling, that for the whole year being the equivalent of not over three inches of rain. The total number of hours of bright sunshine recorded during eleven months was 703.

The observations of the expedition will be of permanent value. Owing to the death of Mr. Hansen, the zoölogical notes printed are confined to records of birds seen or killed. The marine collections are stated to have been rich. The additions to geography are not strikingly important, but creditable. The maps do not show the relation of the wintering-place to the rest of the world, which would have been convenient, and one of them is misleadingly entitled "Track of *Southern Cross* over Wilkes Land"; Wilkes Land being situated to the westward of any area covered by this particular map. The author of the volume is neither a scientific man nor a trained explorer, but he seems to have been a lively companion and enthusiastic in his work. He has written an interesting book, often amusing, and never more so than on the occasion when he attempts a philosophical flight (see pages 232-4) of darkly mysterious character. Many of the illustrations are good, and the book will occupy a respectable place among the volumes of Antarctic literature.

Celtic Folklore: Welsh and Manx. By John Rhŷs, M.A., D.Litt. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 2 v., pp. 718.

For the second time within a year it is our pleasure to record an important contribution to Celtic studies by the professor of Celtic at Oxford. The earlier work, 'The Welsh People,' was produced in collaboration by Professor Rhŷs and Mr. D. Brynmor-Jones, and took its place at once as the best existing book on Welsh history. The second, which now follows so closely upon it, furnishes the most considerable treatment of Welsh folklore that has yet been attempted. Neither of these books was entirely a new production, both being based to some extent upon earlier publications of the author; and in the case of the second this patchwork character here and there annoys the reader, and seriously impairs the unity of the work. Still, the material is very valuable, and, though plenty of contributions have been made before to the study of Welsh folklore (as is apparent from the extended bibliography prefixed to the book), none of Professor Rhŷs's predecessors had produced anything approaching the dignity of a treatise upon the subject.

The work falls mainly into two parts. In the earlier chapters Professor Rhŷs brings together a large collection of the fairy stories current among Welshmen and Manxmen, and relates at length their traditions about goblins and witches, their cave legends, and their superstitions about sacred wells. This makes a very interesting body of popular narrative, and it is all reported with scrupulous scientific accuracy. In the later chapters, which form substantially the second volume, the material collected in the first volume is analyzed and discussed in the light of general folklore; an attempt is made to trace the origin of the different types of fairies; and the relation of the modern tales to the older sagas of both Brythonic and Gaelic Celts—as well as to those of more remote races—is considered at length. This second portion of the book has special interest for the student of ethnology, comparative mythology, and the history of mediæval romance. Professor Rhŷs sets forth with new arguments various doctrines that are already familiar to the readers of his earlier books. In dealing with the Picts he reiterates his opinion that they were not Aryan in race, and it must be granted that he has made out a strong case. In discussing the Goidelic elements in early Welsh stories, particularly in the 'Mabinogion,' he adheres to the view (called in question of late by Prof. Kuno Meyer) that these traditions came down from the Goidelic inhabitants of Wales, rather than that they were imported from Ireland. The chapters in which old sagas of the Irish and Welsh are compared are particularly interesting, and point the way to a line of promising investigations.

In this field of study the evidence is just beginning to be collected and sifted, and Professor Rhŷs's whole discussion is by no means free from bold conjectures. But if he appears to be over-confident now and then in the identification of gods and heroes, or in marking out just the part that each ancient race contributed to the superstitious stock-in-trade of the modern Celt, it should always be said for him that he neither himself forgets, nor allows his reader to forget, the line between knowledge and opinion. Professor Rhŷs is usually courageous in the formation of theories, but he does not take his theories too seriously. In other words, he combines a pretty vigorous scientific imagination with a sense of humor and a sense of fact.

The Improvement of Towns and Cities; or, The Practical Basis of Civic Æsthetics. By Charles Mulford Robinson. Pp. xii, 309. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

The subject of civic æsthetics is one which, at least in America, is attracting to its study a constantly increasing number of people. Our artists are keenly alive to its importance, and no congress of architects, painters, or sculptors is held nowadays which does not give some of its time to a consideration of the city's beauty. Citizens in general are at work for the betterment of the places in which they live, in countless associations such as improvement societies, civic clubs, and municipal leagues. Even city governments show some signs of responding to an increasing pressure on behalf of beauty. Mr. Robinson's book, therefore, if it had little but its timeliness to commend it, would be welcome. But it has more than mere timeliness; it is a sincere attempt to reduce to small compass a subject of great breadth and complexity, and it is a much more successful attempt than one would imagine possible. The variety of the topics treated may be gathered from the naming of a few of them. The book properly opens with some consideration of how to make the most of a city's site and how best to plan its streets. Then follow such details as bridges, street pavements, street cleaning, lighting, etc.; then things to be suppressed or rendered less annoying, as wires, poles, smoke. Next the question how to make advertisements less hideous and utilities more beautiful, claims much space. Parks and public gardens, squares and playgrounds, trees in cities—these and a dozen other matters fill separate chapters.

It has been maintained that the subject of civic æsthetics is not yet sufficiently ad-

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vanced to permit of the preparation of a satisfactory digest of it, but Mr. Robinson's book gives us at least the best general statement of its many problems and of the known ways of solving them that any author has offered. It shows great care in preparation. To have assembled the facts in regard to what has been done both in Europe and in America along any chosen line, such as rules governing the display of advertisements, is a task involving much inquiry, but to apply such inquiry to all the branches of civic æsthetics represents vast labor. The facts thus ascertained are not dryly presented, and the book may be read with a lively interest by all who feel a definite impulse to help our towns and cities to become pleasanter and more seemly places of abode.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Handbook of the S. P. Avery Collection of Prints and Art Books in the New York Public Library. Privately printed.

Bradley, A. C. Poetry for Poetry's Sake. Henry Frowde.
Crockett, R. S. Cinderella. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
De Gubernatis, Prof. A. Su le Orme di Dante. Rome: Tipografia Coöperativa Sociale.
Fane, Violet. Two Moods of a Man. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $2.
Goodell, R. R. L'Enfant Espion, and Other Stories. American Book Co. 45 cents.
Hartshorn, M. A. On the Threshold. Abbey Press.
Hope, E. W., and Browne, E. A. A Manual of School Hygiene. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Kinglake, A. W. Eothen. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Lang, Andrew. Magic and Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Leigh, Lennard. Bridge Whist. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Lennox, Cuthbert. The Practical Life-Work of Henry Drummond. James Pott & Co. $1.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Lloyd, Nelson. A Drone and a Dreamer. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Marston, E. Sketches of Booksellers of Other Days. Scribners. $2.
Matthews, F. S. Familiar Trees and their Leaves. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Maxey, Edwin. Some Questions of Larger Politics. Abbey Press. $1.
Milroy, Elizabeth. A New Version of an Old Story. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Moore, J. T. A Summer Hymnal. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates. $1.25.
Morison, William. Johnston of Warriston. (Famous Scots Series.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Peters, D. M. Songs from Nature. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Peters, F. N. Modern Chemistry. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.10.
Prune, Nat. Wedding Bells. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Rigby, C. S. Toydom A B C. W. B. Conkey Co.
Ripley, N. B. Cordelia, and Other Poems. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Rural Science Series: (1) Watson, G. C. Farm Poultry; (2) Jordan, W. H. The Feeding of Animals. Macmillan. $1.25 each.
Schultz, Jeanne. La Neuvaine de Colette. American Book Co. 45 cents.
Selous, Edmund. Bird Watching. (The Haddon Hall Library.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Sendall, W. J. The Complete Works of C. S. Calverley. George Bell & Sons.
Skeat, Rev. Walter W. Notes on English Etymology. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Smith, A. W. A New Theory of Evolution. Abbey Press.
Stockwell, G. A. Our Choir. Abbey Press.
Stuart, R. M. The Snow-cap Sisters. Harpers.
The Letters of her Mother to Elizabeth. John Lane.
The Living Age. Vol. 229. Boston: Living Age Co.
Tracy, Lucy. Like the Lilies. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Versteeg, Dingman. The Sea Beggars. Continental Pub. Co. $1.50.
Winslow, I. O. The Natural Arithmetic. Books I., II., and III. American Book Co. 50 cents.

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